
T H E

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For the Month of *September*, 1773.

ARTICLE I.

*State Papers collected by Edward Earl of Clarendon. Vol. II.
Fol. 11. 15s. Large Paper. 11. 5s. Small Paper. Payne.*

WERE the character of the earl of Clarendon established upon no other testimony, this vast collection of papers would alone sufficiently evince his amiable disposition, integrity, good sense, and assiduous application towards obtaining and preserving authentic documents of the British transactions during the interesting period in which he lived. We cannot behold these valuable materials without regretting that the noble writer did not himself enjoy the use of them when he composed his History of the Rebellion, which must otherwise have been rendered more perfect in point of information. It appears, that since the publication of the former volume, considerable accessions have been made to the collection, from whence very important advantages may be expected to accrue with regard to the history of those times. The papers in the volume before us, of which Dr. Scrope has been sole editor, begin at the year 1637, and to 1640, consist chiefly of the dispatches of Mr. Secretary Windebank to his majesty and others. We shall present our readers with such as are most remarkable, in the chronological order in which they occur.

The first is a letter from the earl of Newcastle to Mr. Windebank, on receiving information of his (the earl's) being appointed the only gentleman of the bedchamber to the prince of Wales, through the immediate favour of their majesties.

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jesties. It expresses in the strongest terms, the high sense he entertained of the honour which had been done him by that appointment.

‘ Noble Sir,

‘ I beseech you to present me in the most humble manner in the world to his Sacred Majesty, and to let his majesty know I shall as cheerfully as diligently obey his majesty’s commands. Truly, the infinite favour, honour, and trust his Majesty is pleased to heap on me in this princely employment, is beyond any thing I can express. It was beyond a hope of the most partial thoughts I had about me : neither is there any thing in me left, but a thankful heart filled with diligence, and obedience to his Sacred Majesty’s will.

‘ It is not the least favour of the King and Queen’s Majesties to let me know my obligation : and I pray, sir, humbly inform their Majesties, it is my greatest blessing that I owe myself to none but their Sacred Majesties. God ever preserve them and their’s, and make me worthy of their Majesties’ favours !

‘ I have had but seldom the honour to receive letters from you ; but such as these you cannot write often. But truly I am very proud I received such happy news by your hand, which shall ever oblige me to be inviolably,

Sir, your most faithful
and obliged Servant

Welbeck, the 21st March, 1637.

W. NEWCASTLE..

In some of the subsequent letters we find, that a negotiation was entered into by Charles I. for procuring from the court of Spain and the infant cardinal in Flanders, six thousand disciplined troops, for the purpose of suppressing the rebellion ; in consideration of which service, a warrant was to be granted for levying such a number of the king’s subjects as should be sufficient to complete the English and Irish regiments in the Spanish army. This negotiation seems to have proved abortive through the inability of Spain, on account of some recent losses, to comply with a diminution of their force ; but that the unsuccessful issue of it produced no coolness between the two crowns, appears from the substance of another in the year 1640, which is as follows.

‘ I. That the king of Great Britany will make a league offensive and defensive with the king of Spain, and break with the Hollanders, immediately after the suppression of the rebellion in Scotland, and the reducing that kingdom to the former obedience, in which it was before these present troubles.

‘ II. That the king of Great Britany hath granted a levy of 3000 Irish for the service of the king of Spain ; for which purpose the lord-lieutenant of Ireland is presently to despatch orders necessary to that levy

‘ III. That the king of Great Britany hath likewise granted a ship for the waisting of the marquis of Cerralvo and the countess of Feria into Spain.

‘ IV. That

‘ IV. That his majesty hath likewise named Dr. Eden to join with the doctor of the admiralty of Dunkirk, brought hither by the marquis of Velada, for composing the differences between the subjects of the two crowns.

‘ V. That in the mean time, and until the full accomplishment of this league, and for the actions of this present summer, the king of Great Britany will give convoy to such money and men as shall come from Spain to Flanders, and from Flanders to Spain; and in case that Dunkirk, or any other place upon the coast of Flanders, shall be assaulted by the Hollanders, or other enemies of Spain, the king of Great Britany will succour it, and will keep commerce and navigation open and free between the ports of England and those of Flanders: for the performance whereof the king of Great Britany shall add presently, over and above the fleet which he was to have before at sea, twenty ships more to pass up and down the channel, and to see performed that which is above mentioned.

‘ VI. That in consideration of all this, the king of Spain shall furnish by way of loan 1200^m crowns, to be paid to the king of Great Britany; 600^m whereof to be paid within one month, and the other 600^m at Michaelmas next. And if the king of Great Britany shall fail on his part in any of the premisses, then he shall be obliged to repay to the king of Spain the said 1200^m crowns. And for security of this repayment the king of Great Britany shall oblige himself by bond sealed with the great seal of England; to which as well his own goods as those of his subjects shall be liable.

‘ VII. That in regard of the great charge of this fleet of twenty ships to be put to sea by his majesty of Great Britany, the king of Spain shall make an allowance of 100^m crowns by the month, the same to continue during such time as the said fleet shall be at sea and employed as aforesaid. And the said allowance of 100^m crowns by the month shall be deducted by his majesty of Great Britany out of the said sum of 1200^m crowns, and shall be allowed and acknowledged by his majesty of Spain in part of satisfaction, or in full payment of the said 1200^m crowns, according as the said monthly allowance of 100^m crowns shall be found to arise unto upon account. And further, if it shall be necessary, for the services aforesaid, that the said fleet of the king of Great Britany shall be increased, to a great number of ships, and shall exceed the number of twenty sail, then the king of Spain shall increase the monthly allowance from 100^m crowns proportionably after the same rate, and according to the number of ships that shall be increased, the same to be likewise deducted upon account out of the 1200^m impressed as aforesaid.

‘ VIII. And because this action at sea may be of some continuance, the king of Spain shall oblige himself, that when the said 1200^m crowns shall be run out, and repaid by the king of Great Britany, by way of deduction for the charge of the fleet, the king of Spain shall pay and advance from time to time to the king of Great Britany four moths pay before hand, that is 400^m crowns for a new supply for the time to come, and so from time to time to advance the like sum, as long as the action at sea shall continue, the same to be allowed to the king of Great Britany toward the charge of the said fleet, and to be deducted after upon account, according to the proportion and number of ships to be employed by his majesty of Great Britany.

' IX. That of all these propositions account shall be given to the ambassador of his majesty of Great Britany at Madrid, that he may treat with the king of Spain and his ministers, and a resolution returned hither with all the speed that may be.

' X. That likewise the same propositions shall be sent in writing under the hand of secretary Windebank to the marquises of Velada and Muluezzi, and to don Alonso de Cardenas, that they may understand them the better, and send them into Spain, that so the proceedings on both sides may be with all clearness, and the best means used for gaining of time and perfecting of this agreement, without sending to and fro of more messengers.

' And because the principal scope of this negociation is the league offensive and defensive, which cannot take effect until Scotland shall be absolutely reduced, it is therefore agreed on both sides, that the life of this business consists in expedition and secrecy, without both which it must come to nothing: it being evident, that if either his majesty of Great Britany shall not be presently supplied with monies for this action of Scotland, the war there must be drawn out into greater length; or, if this treaty of confederacy shall come to be discovered by the French and Hollanders, they will infallibly foment the rebellion, and consequently retard the reducing of that kingdom, and so the consummation of the league. Wherefore the ambassadors of the king of Spain have promised in the king their master's name, that his majesty of Great Britany shall be punctually complied with in both these; which the ambassador of the king of Great Britany in Madrid is to take notice of, and to press for a sudden resolution and answer accordingly.'

Several letters pass between his majesty and the lords Jermyn and Culpeper, and Mr. John Ashburnham, his ambassadors at France, concerning the London Propositions, and particularly respecting the Covenant. The ambassadors abovementioned, and the queen, who was now likewise abroad, appear to have been the persons with whom his majesty chiefly advised on those important subjects; though it would seem that he also paid great regard to the opinion of Dr. Steward, a physician. The unhappy situation of Charles at this time, is such as scarce can be contemplated without the tenderest emotions of sympathy; and the most obdurate adversary to the royal cause might relent at the prospect of the monarch embarrassed between the demands of his enemies and the counsels of his friends, and oppressed with an anxiety to regulate his conduct by the dictates of duty and of prudence. One of these letters, written in cypher, may serve to give our readers an idea of the force of his majesty's expostulation with ambassadors on the abovementioned subjects.

' *His Majesty to the Lords Jermyn and Culpeper, and Mr. John Ashburnham.*

' Newcastle, Wednesday 12 Aug.

' Upon Saturday last I received on from you all three of the 6. another from 385 and 386 of the 3. and a thurd from 385 of the 10. of Aug. to all which I now will answer; first, to the single letter:

er: I thank 385 for your newes of my young daughter's safe arivall in France; of which tho' I was so ignorant that but by you I knew not that she was gone out of England, yet I fully approve of her journey (for which I desyre you to thank my L. Dalkeith for me); as likewise that you have furnished me with an answer concerning the isles of Jersey and Garnsey. Now, for the other two, I will answer them together. Then know, that as ye are extremely and unanswerably right concerning the Propositions in general, so ye are mightily mistaken in the church particular, not only as to the state of that individual question, but also for the importance of it. First then take it upon my credit (of which I am as sure as that this is called paper upon which I wryte), that Presbyterian government and abolition of Episcopacy, without establishing the Covenant in all my kingdomes, will nowise please the Scots; for the attaining to which, they may possibly be content not to name it untill I be engaged to settle church government as they please (and believe it, that no engagement will serve them but such as I shall never be able to retyre from); but being done, I shall be as it were to begin againe, unless the Covenant be likewise settled. And to say the truth, the establishing the church as they would have it, goes more than halfe way for the settling of the other. But the fourbery of all this business is, they believe (for which they have too good reason) that granting the one, the other must necessarily follow, and therfore have not insisted upon the Covenant with 351. only perswading her that the question is meerly betwene the two governments. So much for the state of the question.

Now for the consequence. This alteration of government (though without the Covenant, which I conceive cannot be) I believe to be as destructive to the regall power, as the quitting of the militia. My reason is that their doctrine, which is antimonarchical, cannot but be admitted with their government; which is most evident, because all our orthodox divines will be expelled or silenced, and theirs introduced. Now that their doctrine is such, I will give you but two evidences (besydes their adhering to the covenant); first, I cannot get here a railing libell answered, written in defence of Lilborne (albeit they all condemn it, because it railes at all government and nobility), meerly because they will not contradict his ground; which is, that the supreme power is in the people: this being the true reason I bolted out of Mr. Henderson, although they pretend other causes publicly. For the second, I refer you to my paper of disputations, which you shall have by the P. amb. If thus shortly I have not given you full satisfaction, yet if you thinke that I understand any thing in religion, then believe me that the Presbyterian tenents and government are more erroneous then those of the church of Rome, and absolutely inconsistent with monarchy; which I irrecoverably destroy, according to owen rules, if legally I introduce that which is so destructive to it. But for all this endeavors must never be given over for gaining of the Scots to my syde, though I may believe it impossible, no more then [for] the regaining of my rights in my tyme, which I esteeme as desperat, all things being possible with God. For take it from mee, the Scots will never declare for me (unless I should make such concessions for destruction of monarchy, which by the grace of God I never will doe) untill a strong visible force appeare for me (which I believe must begin abroad); of which I have verry little hope, at least in tyme to

save me. Concerning which, your joint letter of the 6 of Aug. (as I take it, for this, as some others, is so dated that I know not well what to make of it) towards the end gives me full satisfaction. For I know ³⁵¹ will be as carfull of my preservation as my owen hart can desyre (and possibly, sometymes more); having made those queres only to give her the true state of my condition. To which I will add one more (to you three, but not to her); that is, I command you to give me your opinions freely, which is less hurt to my crowne and posterity, that I be a prisoner within my dominions, or at liberty elsewhere; for be confident that one of thease must be my case very shortly. And yet I assure I know my cause to be so just, that (by the grace of God) I shall never faint in it; only presse me not against my conscience. So farwell.

‘ Mistakings in the wryting troubles me some tymes; as for example [107. 71. 241. 82. 16. 44. 87. 26. 88. 11. 82. 26. 49. 63.] This is on of your parenthesis; wherfore examin your’s better, and excuse the errors in myne, for I have none to help me.’

In a subsequent letter, when he is farther urged by the same counsellors to comply implicitly with the demands of the Presbyterians, from the motive of political necessity, to which they insist he ought to sacrifice every other consideration, he expresses himself in the following pathetic terms. ‘ For when those few from whom I can only expect encouragement in my constancy, shall condemn me of wilfulness, and by it make me the destroyer of my crowne and family, how can you thinke it possible for me to joy in any thing after this? It is such a greefe, that must sinke any honest hart, and I am sure would soone doe myne, if I did not hope, and that shortly, to make you see and confesse your error.’

So anxious does his majesty appear to have been for accommodating this important object of deliberation on justifiable ground, that we find him applying to the bishop of London, for his sincere opinion how far his compliance with the demands of the Presbyterians would be consistent with moral obligation. We shall lay before our readers the papers relative to this transaction.

‘ *His Majesty to the Bishop of London.*

‘ My Lord,

Newcastle 30 Sep. 1646.

‘ My knowledge of your worth and learning, and particularly in resolving cases of conscience, makes me at this time (I confesse) put you to a hard and bold task. Nor would I do it, but that I am confident that you know not what fear is in a good cause. Yet I hope you believe that I shall be loth to expose you to a needless danger; assuring you that I will yield to none of your friends in the care of your preservation. I need not tell you the many persuasions and threatenings which have been used to me for making me change Episcopal into Presbyterial government; which *absolutely* to do is so directly against my conscience, that (by the grace of God) no misery shall ever make me. But I hold myself obliged by all honest means to eschew the mischief of this too visible storm. And I think some kind of compliance to the iniquity
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of the times may be fit, as my case is, which at another time were unlawful. These are the grounds which have made me think of this inclosed Proposition; the which, as it one way looks handsome to me, so in another I am fearful lest I cannot make it with a safe conscience; of which I command you to give me your opinion, upon your allegiance; conjuring you that you will deal plainly and freely with me, as ye will answer it at the dreadful day of judgment. I conceive the question to be, whether I may with a safe conscience give way to this proposed temporary compliance, with a resolution to recover and maintain that doctrine and discipline wherein I have been bred. The duty of my oath is herein chiefly to be considered; I flattering myself that this way I better comply with it, than being constant to a flat denial; considering how unable I am by force to obtain that which this way there wants not a probability to recover, if accepted (otherwise, there is no harm done); for my regal authority once settled, I make no question of recovering Episcopal government. And God is my witness, my chiefest end in regaining my power, is to do the church service. So expecting your reasons to strengthen your opinion, whatsoever it be, I rest

Your most assured, real, faithful, constant friend,

CHARLES R.

‘ I desire your opinion in the particulars, as well as in the generals, of my Proposition. For it is very possible that you may like the scope of it, yet mend much in the penning of it. I give you leave to take the assistance of the bishop of Salisbury and Dr. Sheldon, or either of them; but let me have your answer with all convenient speed. None knows of this but Will. Murray, who promises exact secrecy. If your opinion and reasons shall confirm me in making this Proposition, then you may some way be seen in it; otherwise, I promise you that your opinion shall be concealed.

‘ *A Proposition for settling Religion.*

‘ Whatsoever was the necessity of reformation of religion at the beginning of this parliament, no man will now make the least question of it. And I believe it is little less evident that the present distractions are so great, and of such a nature, as it is much out of the power of any human *Fiat* to settle them: there being no way, in my opinion, to restore that happy tranquillity which the Church of England hath lately and miserably lost, but, by a solemn, free, and serious debate by a well chosen number of divines of each opinion. For certainly, persecution never was, nor will be, found a good way for conversion.

‘ These considerations have made me form a Proposition, which no man but myself hath thought on. It is, that concerning matters of religion, I will be content that all things remain for three years *in statu quo nunc*, so as I and my household be not hindered from using that form of God's service which we have always done; and that, in the mean time a committee be chosen of both houses (the fewer the better) to consult and debate with sixty well chosen divines (that is to say, twenty of my naming, as many of the Presbyterians, and as many of the Independents). how the church shall be settled and governed at the end of three years; or sooner, if parties and differences may be sooner agreed. I do not mean that these committees shall have any other power than of hearing, debating, and reporting; for I always understand that the determination of all be left to me with the two houses.

' Now, if this be accepted, I expect that this should rather facilitate than retard the settling of civil matters, giving you power to make use of these, as you shall judge best for that peaceable end for which all good men desire.

' *The Bishops of London and Salisbury to his Majesty.*

• May it please your majesty,

• In obedience to your majesty's command, we have advised upon this Proposition, and your majesty's doubts arising thereon. And attending to our duty and your majesty's strict charge laid upon us, we shall deliver our opinions, and the sense we have of it, plainly and freely, to the best of our understandings; nor shall we fail in point of fidelity, however we may in judgment.

• The doubt is touching the lawfulness of a temporary compliance in matters of religion, in the state they now here stand; that is, as we apprehend it, whether your majesty may, without breach of your oath, and with a safe conscience, permit for some time the exercise of the directory for worship, and practice of discipline, as they are now used and stand enjoined by ordinance.

• For resolution whereof, we shall take the boldness to make use of those grounds which we find laid down to our hands in your majesty's directions. For your majesty's constancy and fixedness of resolution not to recede from what you have by oath undertaken in that matter, as it gives you a great latitude to walk in, with safety of conscience in your endeavours to that end (the rectitude of intention abating much of the obliquity in all actions) so the full expressions you have been now pleased to make of it, and, that what you propose at present is *in ordine* thereunto, doth much facilitate the work, and fit us for a resolution.

• Taking therefore your majesty's settled determination touching the church for a foundation unremoveable, and this proposition (in your majesty's design) as a means subservient thereunto; considering also the condition your majesty's affairs now stand in, being destitute of all means compulsory, or of regaining what is lost by force; we cannot conceive in this your majesty's condescension any violation of that oath, whereof your majesty is so justly tender, but that your majesty doth hereby still continue to preserve and protect the church by the best ways and means you have now left you (which is all the oath can be supposed to require); and that the permission hereby intended (whereby, in some mens apprehensions, your majesty may seem to throw down what you desire to build up) is not only levelled to that end, but, as your majesty stands persuaded, probably fitted for the effecting it in some measure.

• And as your majesty will stand clear (in our judgments, at least) in respect of your oath, which is principally to be regarded, so neither do we think your majesty will herein trespass in point of conscience; because your majesty finding them already settled, and as it were in possession, do only, what in other cases is usual, not disturb that possession while the differences are in hearing, or (which is more justifiable) permit that which you cannot hinder, if you would; not commanding it (for that may vary the case) but (which possibly may be better liked) leaving it upon that foot it now stands, enjoined by the authority of the houses, which is found strong enough to enforce the obedience. Which intendment of your majesty would stand more clear, if this point of a temporary toleration were not laid as the principle of the proposition (as now it

it may seem to be standing in the front), but as an accessory and necessary concession for the more peaceable proceeding in the business. The first part therefore in the Proposition might be, for the accommodation of differences by a debate between parties (as it lies in the Proposition), and then, that, during that debate all things remain *statu quo nunc* without any interruption or disturbance from your majesty, provided the debate determine and a settlement be made within such a time, &c. and that your majesty and your household, in the interim, be not hindered, &c. which notwithstanding we humbly submit to your majesty's better judgment to alter or not.

' We cannot but have a lively sense of the great troubles your majesty undergoes, and doubt not but that God who hath hitherto given you patience in them, will bless you with a deliverance out of them in due time, and make the event of your constant endeavours answerable to the integrity of your majesty's heart; which is the prayer of your majesty's

most obedient and humble Servants

Fulham, 14 Oct. 1646.

GUIL. LONDON. BR. SARUM.

The answer from the bishops to his majesty is dated from Fulham, Oct. 14, 1646; and on the 16th of the same month, which was before he could have received it, he writes to the queen from Newcastle on the same interesting subject of the Propositions. As this letter shews not only the principle of honour on which his majesty acted, but also presents us with the warmest declaration of his conjugal affection, we shall lay it before our readers as a specimen of the epistolary correspondence which subsisted between this unfortunate monarch and his royal consort during these disastrous times.

' Deare hart,

Newcastell, Fryday, 16 Oct. 1646.

' As I know thou canst not dout of my perfect reall and unchangeable love to thee, and that there is no earthly thing I study more (indeed none so much) then thy contentment (for it must always retourne to me with interest); so it would intollerably ad to my afflictions if thou should not be satisfied with that account which Davenant and thease inclosed copies will give thee. Nor I cannot doute but thou will, when thou considers that if I should forsake my owen conscience, I cannot be true to or worthy of thee. Nor should I forgive myself, if by a misinformed or straitlaced conscience, I should prejudice thy just ends. Wherfor I assure thee that the absolute establishing of Presbiteriall governement would make me but a titular king. And that this is so, both the Wills, Davenant and Murray, confesses; but then they say, that a present absolut concession is the only way to reduce the governement, as I would have it. But I hope that this argument will not be judged sufficient by 385 and 386. for they confess that a flower of the crowne, once given away by act of parlament, is not reducible. And if the supremacy in church affaires be not, I know not what is. For thou must understand that (which I finde cleerly mistaken by all you in France) the difference between the two governements (Episcopal and Presbiterian) is one of the least differences now among us, even in points of religion. For under the pretence of a thorough reformation (as they call it) they intend to take away all the power

power of the ecclesiastical government from the crowne, and place it in the two houses of parliament. Besides they will introduce that doctrine which teaches rebellion to be lawfull, and that the supream power is in the people; to whom kings (as they say) ought to give account, and be corrected, if they do amiss.

'This, I am confident, will satisfy thee that I have reason (besides that great argument of conscience) to endure all extremities, rather than to suffer by my consent the absolute establishing of that government, which brings along with it such great ruinous mischeces. And certainly if the Scots will be content with any thing less then the distruction of the essentialls of monarchy, I have done that which must content them, and make them declare for me, in case my offers should be rejected at London, which I expect. Thus I hope (whatsoever becomes of me) to have this comfort, that I shall not in any kynde be lessened in thy opinion, which is the only thing that can make him truly miserable, who is eternally
Thyne.'

We do not find, by any positive declaration in these papers, what influence the opinion of the bishops had upon his majesty's mind; but in a letter which he dispatches to the queen, the 21st of November, he affirms, that his three years concession of Presbyterial government proceeded chiefly from a desire of affording her satisfaction. 'For,' says he, 'nether was it extorted from me by importunity, or fynding out the discovery of a new necessity; nor have I thereby any whit abandoned the great and not to be forsaken argument of my conscience. For, upon my faith to thee, my earnest desire of giving thee satisfaction was the cheefe, I may say only, cause that made me fynde out this way; to show thee, and, as I thought, demonstratively, that the Scots will not joyne with me but upon such conditions as are destructive to monarchy.'

It would be uncandid either to question his majesty's sincerity in this declaration, or condemn his facility in sacrificing an object of so much public consequence to the inclination of the queen. The whole of his letters authorise us to conclude, that he never entertained hopes of any salutary effect from the concession to the presbyterians, and in such a situation, it could not be unjustifiable to consult the dispositions of a consort, not only endeared to him by the tenderest affection, but whose happiness was so much interested in his compliance; especially when his conduct coincided with the warmest requests, and reiterated declarations of all with whom he advised.

The various letters that pass between the king and his correspondents, relate chiefly to the propositions of the Presbyterians; the most important transaction in the period to which this volume refers. The temper of Charles I. is more clearly delineated by these papers, than by any work hitherto published;

lished ; and whatever idea may be entertained respecting the political foundation of the principles which governed his public conduct, it must be acknowledged, that the rectitude of his intentions receives great confirmation from the materials with which we are here presented. At the same time, that these papers place the character of that unfortunate monarch in an amiable light, the multiplicity of business which they discover that he transacted in person, unassisted by any secretary, and labouring under a variety of public and private cares, evince him to have possessed more eminent abilities and strength of mind, than has been generally admitted by historians.

[*To be concluded in our next.*]

II. *Fundamenta Entomologiæ: or, an Introduction to the Knowledge of Insects. Being a Translation of the Fundamenta Entomologiæ of Linnæus, farther illustrated with Copper Plates and Additions. By W. Curtis, Apothecary. 8vo. 3s. White.*

WE are here presented with the version of a small treatise on insects, written originally by Andrew John Bladh, a pupil of Linnæus, and published in the seventh volume of that celebrated author's *Amœnitates Academicæ*. Mr. Curtis acquaints us, that the pleasure he received from Mr. Bladh's performance, with the hopes of facilitating the knowledge of insects, and rendering that study more general, were the motives which induced him to this translation. For answering these laudable purposes, he has undoubtedly made choice of a very proper author, whose descriptions are generally accurate ; and Mr. Curtis himself, by the two copper plates, and other illustrations he has added to the version, has not a little increased the utility of which the treatise may be productive.

We shall lay before our readers the general description of insects, as contained in the seventh and such a part of the eighth section, as may be understood without referring to the plates.

Whoever is desirous of attaining a systematic knowledge of insects ought primarily to be solicitous about acquiring the terms made use of in the science, that so he may be able rightly to denominate every part of an insect. This then as the first rudiments of the science, we shall begin with. The student is first to know what an insect is, lest he mistake hippocampi, and other amphibious animals for them, as was formerly done, or confound them with the vermes, which Linnæus first distinguished from insects, and which differ essentially from them as the class mammalia do from birds. Every insect is furnished with a head, antennæ, and feet, of
all

all which the vermes are destitute. All insects have six or more feet ; they respire through pores placed on the sides of their bodies, and which are termed spiracula ; their skin is externally hard, and serves them instead of bones, of which they have internally none. From this definition, the acus marina is evidently no insect. But the antennæ placed on the fore part of the head, constitute the principal distinction. These are jointed and moveable in every part, in which they differ from the horns of other animals ; they are organs conveying some kind of sense ; but we have no more idea what this kind of sense is, than a man has, who, without eyes, attempts to determine the particular action of the rays of light on the retina of the eye, or to explain the changes which from thence take place in the human mind. That they are the organs of some kind of sense, is apparent from their perpetually moving them forward ; yet the hard crust with which they are invested, and their shortness in flies and other insects, would induce one to believe them not to be the organs of touch : that they are tubular, and filled with air, and some kind of humour, appears from the antennæ of butterflies immersed in water. To come now to the terms of the art. A knowledge of the external parts of the body is first to be established, which, after the method of anatomists, we divide into head, trunk, abdomen, and extremities.

• Sect. 8. *Caput the head.* This part in insects is without brain. The difference between the brain and spinal marrow consists in the former being a medullary part organized. We do not deny the existence of a medullary thread in the head of insects, but we never could discover it to be organized : hence the hippobosca equina, or horse fly, will live, run, nay even copulate, after being deprived of its head ; to say nothing of many others which are capable of living a long while in the same situation. As they are not furnished with ears, we apprehend them incapable of hearing ; as we can no more conceive that sense to exist without ears, than vision without eyes. They are nevertheless susceptible of any shrill or loud noise, as well as fishes, but in a manner different from that of hearing. We are also dubious if they have the sense of smell, no organ being found in them adapted to that purpose ; they nevertheless perceive agreeable and fetid effluvia, but in a manner wholly unknown to us. Many insects have no tongue, nor make any sound with their mouth ; but for this purpose, some use their feet, others their wings, and others, some elastic instrument with which they are naturally furnished. Most insects have two eyes, but the gyrinus has four, the scorpion six, the spider eight, and the scolopendra three. They have
no

no eye-brows, but the external tunic of their eyes is hard and transparent like a watch-glass; their eyes have no external motion, unless it be in the crab. They consist for the most part of one lens only; but in those of the butterfly, diptera, and many of the beetles, they are more numerous. Pugett discovered 17,325 lenses in the cornea of a butterfly, and Lewenhoeck, 800 in a fly.

The author afterwards delivers a particular account of the various parts and peculiarities in the several species of insects, with an explanation of the names under which they are classed by the writers of natural history. But one of the most interesting subjects in the treatise is the sex, the observations on which will, we doubt not, be acceptable to our readers.

‘The same difference of sex exists in insects as in other animals, and they even appear more disposed to increase their species than other animals; many of them, when become perfect, seeming to be created for no other purpose but to propagate their species. Thus the silk-worm, when it arrives at its perfect or moth state, is incapable of eating, and can hardly fly: it endeavours only to propagate its species; after which the male immediately dies, and the female, as soon as she has deposited her eggs.

‘In many insects, the male and female are with difficulty distinguished; and in some they differ so widely, that an unskilful person might easily take the male, and female, of the same insect for different species; as for instance, in the *phalæna humuli*, *piniaria*, *ruffula*; each sex of which differs in colour. This unlikeness is still more apparent in some insects, in which the male has wings, and the female none, as in the *coccus*, *lampyris*, *phalæna antiqua*, *brumata*, *lichenella*. And as most insects remain a long while in copulation, as we may see in the *tipula*, and silk-worm; the winged males fly with the wingless females, and carry them about from one place to another, as in the *phalæna antiqua*. It is, however, no certain rule, that when one insect of the same species is found to have wings and the other to be without, the former must necessarily be the male, and the latter the female. The aphides, for instance, are an exception; and besides these, individuals of both sexes, and of the same species, are found without wings, as the *carabi majores*, *tenebriones*, *meloes*, *cimices*. The *gryllus pedestris* is likewise destitute of wings, and might have passed for a *grillus* in its pupa state, had it not been seen in copulation; for it is well known that no insect can propagate its species, till it arrives at its last or perfect state.

“Ple-

“ Pleraque insectorum genitalia sua intra anum habent abscondita, et penes solitarios, sed nonnulla penem habent bifidum: Cancris autem et Aranei geminos, quemadmodum nonnulla amphibia, et quod mirandum in loco alieno, ut Cancer, sub basi caudæ. *Araneus mas* palpos habet clavatos, qui penes sunt, juxta os utrinque unicum, quæ clavæ sexum nec speciem distinguunt; et fœmina vulvas suas habet in abdomine juxta pectus; heic vero si unquam vere dixeris: res plena timoris amor, si enim proci in auspicio accesserit, fœmina ipsum devorat, quod etiam fit, si non statim se retraxerit. Libellula fœmina genitale suum sub apice gerit caudæ, et mas sub pectore, adeo ut cum mas collum fœmina forcipe caudæ arripit, illa caudam suam pectori ejus adplicet, sicque peculiari ratione connexæ volitent.”

‘ Besides these of the male and female, a third sex exists in some insects, which we call *neuter*: as these have not the distinguishing parts of either sex, they may be considered as eunuchs or infertile.

‘ We know of no instance of this kind in any other class of animals, nor in vegetables, except in the class singenesiæ, and in the opulus. This kind of sex is only found among those insects which form themselves into societies, as bees, wasps, and ants; and here these kind of eunuchs are real slaves, as on them lies the whole business of the œconomy, while those of the other sex are idle, only employing themselves in the increase of the family. Each family of bees have one female only (called the queen) many males, and an almost innumerable quantity of neuters. Of those, the neuters (whose antennæ have eleven joints) do the working part; they extract and collect honey and wax, build up the cells, keep watch, and do a variety of other things. The males, whose antennæ consist of 15 joints, do no work; they serve the female once, and that at the expence of their lives; they may be considered in the light of a set of parasites, or *Cecisbei*; but as soon as their business of impregnation is over, they are expelled by their servants the neuters, who now shake off the yoke, but yet pay all due respect to their common mother the queen. The same œconomy nearly takes place in wasps, where the young females, which are impregnated in the autumn, live through the winter, and in the spring propagate their species; but the queen, together with all the males, perish in the winter.

‘ Among ants, the neuters form a hill in the shape of a cone, that the water may run off it, and place those which are in the pupa state, on that side of it which is least exposed

to the heat of the sun. At a considerable distance from these are found the habitations of the males, and females, to whom the most ready obedience is yielded by the neuters, till a new offspring succeeds, and then they oblige them to quit their habitations. But those ants which live entirely under ground, provide better for themselves in this respect; for a little before their nuptials, they quit their habitation of their own accord, and after swarming in the manner of bees, they copulate in the air; and each retiring to some new habitation, founds a new family.

‘No hermaphrodites have as yet been discovered among insects. There is something very singular, however, in the propagation of the aphides. A female aphis once impregnated, can produce young, which will continue to produce others without any fresh impregnation, even to the fifth progeny; afterwards a new impregnation must take place.’

The author observes, that the opinion of insects being produced by equivocal generation, or from putrefaction, almost universally prevailed before the times of Harvey and Rhedi, who proved by experiments, that the same modes of propagation, observable in the other classes of animals, extended also to the tribes of insects; and that every animated existence in nature originated from an egg. It must be acknowledged, that the astonishing fecundity of insects countenanced the presumption of their being produced by other means than the ordinary forms of generations, since Reaumur observed, that one female bee can annually deposit in the hive forty thousand eggs.

The metamorphosis of insects is likewise a curious subject of speculation in their natural history, and is clearly described by the author through its several gradations. On the whole, this treatise is the most useful compendium we have seen relating to the knowledge of insects, and we would recommend the perusal of it to those who have leisure and inclination to cultivate this entertaining study.

III. *The Works of Mr. Jonathan Richardson. Consisting of*
I. *The Theory of Painting.* II. *Essay on the Art of Criticism,*
so far as it relates to Painting. III. *The Science of a Connoisseur.*
All corrected and prepared for the Press by his Son Mr.
J. Richardson. 8vo. 5s. T. Daves. [Concluded.]

36.111

AFTER finishing his ingenious observations on the theory of painting, Mr. Richardson proceeds to consider the art of criticism relative to the productions of the pencil. In elucidating this subject, the rules which had been delivered in the

the former part of the treatise are brought into application, and the author instructs his readers in the method of forming a judgment of those performances upon established principles. He observes, that there never was a picture in the world entirely destitute of faults, and very seldom one which is not extremely defective in some of the parts of painting; but that, if the story of a picture be well chosen, and so delineated as to fill the mind with noble and instructive ideas, he would not hesitate to call it an excellent performance, though it should be liable to objections in point of correctness and colouring.

The first thing required by Mr. Richardson in forming a connoisseur is, that he divest himself of every prejudice, respecting either the fame of the painter, or the judgment of those who may have delivered their opinion of the merit of his work. When the yoke of authority is thus thrown off, he advises that the painter or connoisseur be guided in their determination by such a system of rules as is founded on reason; and he presents them with the following directory, which is an abstract of what he had formerly inculcated.

* I. The subject, whatever it be, history, portrait, landscape, &c. must be finely imagined, and if possible improved in the painter's hands; he must think well as a historian, poet, philosopher, or divine, and moreover as a painter in making a wise use of all the advantages of his art, and finding expedients to supply its defects.

* II. The expression must be proper to the subject, and the characters of the persons; it must be strong, so that the dumb-show may be perfectly well and readily understood. Every part of the picture must contribute to this end; colours, animals, draperies, and especially the actions of the figures, and above all the airs of the heads.

* III. There must be one principal light, and this, and all the subordinate ones with the shadows and repotes, must make one intire harmonious mass; the several parts must be well connected and contrasted, so that the whole composition at first view, must be grateful to the eye, as a good piece of music is to the ear. By thi means the picture is not only more delightful, but better seen and comprehended.

* IV. The drawing must be just; nothing must be flat, lame, or ill proportioned; and these proportions must vary according to the characters of the persons drawn.

* V. The colouring, whether gay or solid, must be natural, beautiful and clean, and what the eye is delighted with, in shadows as well as lights and middle tints.

* VI. And whether th colours are laid on thick, or finely wrought, it must appear to be done by a light and accurate hand.

* Lastly, nature must be the foundation. This must still and ever appear; but nature must be raised and improved, not only from what is commonly seen to what is but rarely; but even yet higher, from a judicious and beautiful idea in the painter's mind, so that grace and greatness may shine throughout; more or less however as the subject may happen to be. And herein consists the principal excellency of a picture or drawing.'

By a proper attention to these rules, the author is confident that a gentleman may become a good judge of painting; but for attaining the accomplishment more perfectly, he thinks it necessary that the connoisseur should be thoroughly acquainted and freely conversant with the works of the greatest masters in the art.

Besides the value which a picture derives from its being executed according to the rules of art, the author observes, that there is also another characteristic whereby to judge of the goodness of those productions, which consists in their aptitude to answer the purposes they were intended to serve. Of these he remarks, that there are several, but all reducible to the two general heads of pleasure and improvement.

Ut prodesse volunt & delectare poetæ :

Ut pictura poësis.

Hor. Ar. Poet. 333.

Our author regrets that the great and principal end of painting has been hitherto so little attended to, both by artists and connoisseurs; a circumstance that has not only rendered abortive the moral influence which the production of the pencil might be made to exert, but even disparaged the nature of pictures in general, in the public estimation. He again inculcates that painters are upon a level with writers; and that they may entertain and instruct equally with poets, historians, philosophers, and divines: observing, that mythological, or history painting, improves the mind not merely by the particular story or fable with which it presents us, but in general raises our ideas of the species, affords a delightful virtuous pride, and kindles in noble souls an ambition to act up to that dignity thus conceived to be in human nature.

The method which our author recommends in examining a picture is, that before the spectator advances so near it as to look into particulars, he should observe the tout ensemble of the masses, and what effect is produced by the whole. At the same distance he ought to consider the general colouring, whether it be pleasing to the eye, or disagreeable. He is then to examine the composition near, to view the contrasts and other particularities, and to finish his observations on that

head. In like manner he is next to examine successively, the colouring, handling, drawing, invention, and expression; and lastly, to consider what grace and greatness is diffused over the performance, and how suitable to the several characters.

We shall lay before our readers one of the examples by which the author illustrates the proper method of examining pictures. The subject is a half length of a countess dowager of Exeter, painted by Vandyke.

‘ The dress is black velvet, and that appearing almost one large spot, the lights not being so managed as to connect it with the other parts of the picture; the face and linen at the neck, and the two hands, and broad cuffs at the wrists, being by this means three several spots of light, and that near of an equal degree, and forming almost an equilateral triangle, the base of which is parallel to that of the picture, the composition is defective; and this occasioned chiefly from the want of those lights upon the black. But so far as the head, and almost to the waist, with the curtain behind, there is an admirable harmony; the chair also makes a medium between the figure and the ground. The eye is delivered down into that dead black spot, the drapery, with great ease; the neck is covered with linen, and at the breast the top of the stomacher makes a straight line. This would have been very harsh and disagreeable, but that it is very artfully broken by the bows of a knot of narrow ribbon which rise above that line in fine, well-contrasted shapes. This knot fastens a jewel on the breast, which also helps to produce the harmony of this part of the picture; and the white gloves which the lady holds in her left hand, helps the composition something, as they vary that light spot from that which the other hand and linen make.

‘ The general hue of the colouring is extremely beautiful; it is solemn, but warm, mellow, clean, and natural; the flesh, which is exquisitely good, especially the face, the black habit, the linen and cushion, the chair of crimson velvet, and the gold flowered curtain mixt with a little crimson have an admirable effect, and would be perfect were there a middle tinct among the black.

‘ The face and hands, are a model for a pencil in portrait painting; it is not Vandyke’s first laboured Flemish manner, nor in the least careless or slight; the colours are well wrought, and touched in his best style; nor is the curtain in the least inferior in this particular, though the manner is varied as it ought to be, the pencil is there more seen than in the flesh; the hair; the hair, veil, chair, and indeed throughout, except the black dress, is finely handled.

‘ The

' The face is admirably well drawn; the features are pronounced clean, and firmly, so as it is evident he who did that, conceived strong and distinct ideas, and saw wherein the lines that formed those differed from all others; there appears nothing of the antique, or Raphael taste of designing; but nature, well understood, well chosen, and well managed; the light and shadows are justly placed and shaped, and both sides of the face answer well to each other. The jewel on the breast is finely disposed, and directs the eye to the line between the breasts, though concealed otherwise by the widow dress, and gives the body there a great relief; the girdle also hath a good effect, for by being marked pretty strongly, the eye is shown the waist very readily. The linen, the jewel, the gold curtain, the gauze veil are all extremely natural, that is, they are justly drawn and coloured. But the want of those lights I have so often lamented is the cause that the figure does not appear to sit firmly, the thighs and knees are lost. Nor is the drawing of the arms, nor even of the hands altogether as one would wish, particularly the left, and this not only in the outlines, but the lights and shadows; especially of that hand, which by being too light is brought out of its true place, and nearer the eye than it ought to be. There are also some oversights in the perspective of the chair and curtain; in the lineal part of the former, and in the aerial part in both.

' These being thus dispatched we are at liberty to consider the invention. Vandyke's thought seems to have been, that the lady should be sitting in her own room receiving a visit of condolence from an inferior with great benignity, as shall be seen presently; I would here observe the beauty and propriety of this thought. For by this the picture is not an insipid representation of a face and dress, but here is also a picture of the mind, and what more proper to a widow than sorrow? and more becoming a person of quality than humility and benevolence? Besides, had she been supposed to have appeared to her equals, or superiors, the furniture of the place must have been mourning, and her gloves on, but the colours of the curtain and chair, and the contrast occasioned by the gloves in her hand have a fine effect.

' Never was a calm becoming sorrow better expressed than in this face, chiefly there where it is always most conspicuous, that is in the eyes: not Guido Reni, no, nor Raphael himself could have conceived a passion with more delicacy, or more strongly expressed it! to which also the whole attitude of the figure contributes not a little; her right hand drops easily from the elbow of the chair, which her wrist lightly rests upon, the other lies in her lap towards her left knee, all which

together appears so easy and careless, that what is lost in the composition by the regularity I have taken notice of, is gained in the expression; which, being of greater consequence, justifies Vandyke in the main, and shows his great judgment, for though as it is, there is (as I said) something amiss, I cannot conceive any way of avoiding that inconvenience without a greater.

‘ And notwithstanding the defects I have taken the liberty to remark, with the same indifferency as I have observed the beauties, that is, without the least regard to the great name of the master, there is a grace throughout that charms, and a greatness that commands respect; she appears at first sight to be a well-bred woman of quality, by her face, and in her mien; and as her dress, ornaments, and furniture contribute something to the greatness, the gauze veil coming over her forehead, and the hem of it hiding a defect (which was want of eye-brows,) is a fine artifice to give more grace. This grace and greatness is not that of Raphael, or the antique, but what is suitable to a portrait, to one of her age and character; and consequently better than if she had appeared with the grace of a Venus, or Helena, or the majesty of a Minerva, or Semiramis.

‘ It remains to consider this picture in the other view; we have seen in what degree the rules of painting have been observed; let us now enquire how far the ends of pleasure, and advantage are answered.

‘ And this is more or less as a man’s present fancy, judgment, or other circumstances happen to be; these considerations are purely personal, and every man must judge for himself. Here therefore I shall be very short, I will omit many reflections that I might make, and expatiate upon, and only touch some of the principal

‘ The beauty and harmony of the colouring give me a great degree of pleasure; for, though this is grave and solid, it hath a beauty not less than what is bright and gay. So much of the composition as is good does also much delight the eye; and though the lady is not young, nor remarkably handsome, the grace and greatness that are here represented please exceedingly. In a word, as throughout this whole picture one sees instances of an accurate hand, and fine thought, these must give proportionable pleasure to so hearty a lover as I am.

‘ The advantages of this picture to me, as a painter, are very considerable. A better master for portrait painting, and the simple representation of nature, as it is, perhaps never was, and a better manner of this master I have never seen: there

there is such a benignity, such a genteel, becoming behaviour, such a decent sorrow, and resignation expressed here, that a man must be very insensible that is not the better for considering it; the mourning habit excites serious thoughts, which may produce good effects. But what I confess I am particularly affected with, I who (I thank God) have for many years been happy as a husband, is the circumstance of widowhood, not that it gives me sorrow as remembering the conjugal knot must be cut, but I rejoice that it yet subsists.'

The author afterwards treats copiously of the knowledge of hands, and the method of distinguishing originals and copies, where he suggests many ingenious observations worthy the attention of the painter and connoisseur.

In the discourse which concludes the volume, Mr. Richardson expatiates on the dignity, certainty, pleasure, and advantage of the science of a connoisseur. Here also he is at great pains to evince the eminent rank which painting holds among the other exertions of genius. The business of painting, he observes, is to do almost all that discourse and books can effect: that, in many instances, it is capable of exceeding them in the power of communicating ideas, and that the manner in which it influences the mind is not only more speedy but delightful. From these and such like remarks, he concludes, that if history, poetry, philosophy, natural or moral theology, or any of the liberal arts and sciences, are worthy the notice and study of a gentleman, so also is painting; which, if properly cultivated and encouraged, might become of national utility, by improving the minds of the people, reforming their manners, and increasing the wealth, the power, and honour of the state.

In this discourse, the author draws a short comparison between the merit of ancient and modern painters, which coming from so excellent a judge, we shall lay before our readers.

'Which have been the most excellent painters, the ancients or the moderns, is a question often proposed, and which I will, just by the by, endeavour to resolve. That the painters of those times were equal to the sculptors in invention, expression, drawing, grace, and greatness, besides their own authors all affirming it, is so exceeding probable, that I think it may be taken for granted. If so, that in drawing, grace and greatness, the ancients have the advantage is certain; and little less than certain that in colouring, and composition the moderns have it more.

'Now, as drawing represents to us the beauty of forms, and colouring the animated tints of the life, this seems, in

a great measure, to make amends, in favour of the moderns; for what they may be, in some degree, wanting, in regard to the other; yet not wholly, since no colours can ever equal the beauties of nature; whereas drawing, we can almost venture to say, can surpass nature itself; at least such as one ever sees it in the same subject.

‘The manner of thinking of the ancients is such as is not to be mentioned without the utmost veneration allowed to be given to mortal men; but when I see what some of the moderns have done in these parts of painting, I profess I dare not determine which has the preference. It would be a fine amusement, or rather a noble and a useful employment for a gentleman to collect and compare the many fine thoughts and expressions on one side and the other: for me to do it here would be too tedious, and too great a task, having already undertaken what will cost me more pains and time than I intended, or perhaps is fit for me to bestow this way.

‘Thus far the scale seems pretty equal; unless it be thought to incline a little on the side of the ancients. There remains to oppose the composition of the moderns, to this small advantage, and to that, far more considerable one, their high excellence in grace and greatness. But perhaps all this will not be sufficient to give them the preference; for, without mentioning our Parmegiano, our Corregio, our Michael Angelo, let us insist on our Raphael alone, “*In quo instar omnium auxiliorum est;*” let us reflect on what he hath done for us, in subjects far more sublime than the ancients ever had to treat, (and by the way let this be added to the scale of the moderns, that they are possessed of such subjects) and let us give composition its due share, in which the ancients come in no sort of concurrence with us; let us reflect, that this, which is like perspicuity in writing, that arises from the methodical disposition of the several parts of the subject; and that it not only gives a relief to, and improves the other beauties, but still more strongly urges the expression itself, which is the very life and soul of the work, by making it every where remarked; I think I may venture to decide in favour of the moderns: however I should be glad to see this curious question handled with accuracy and judgment.’

From the whole of this work, the author evidently appears to have possessed the most just and accurate taste in the elegant art of which he treats. Abstracting what particularly relates to his subject, his observations, even as a writer, are ingenious and philosophical, and he discovers, almost in every page, the brilliancy and vigour of thought which distinguish those
who

who are endowed with a warm and lively imagination. A virtuous disposition is here no less eminently conspicuous than a judgment in painting; and while he instructs his readers in the science of a connoisseur, he animates them with a rational zeal for morality and religion.

IV. *Fragmentum ex Lib. XCI. Historiarum Titi Livi Patavini nunc primum eruit ex Codice MS. Vaticano quondam Palatino inter Latinos Signato No. 24. Et Celeb. Beniamino Kennicott inscripsit Pavllvs Iacobvs Brvns. 4to. 1s. White.*

WE cannot but lament the fate of the Greek and Roman historians. Their works have suffered irreparable injuries in descending down the stream of time. Most of them are irretrievably sunk in the gulph of oblivion; and of others we have only some small fragments preserved. Those which have escaped without any material damage, like the reliques of the fleet of Æneas,

“ Apparent rari nantes in gurgite vasto.”

The principal Greek historians, of which we have any considerable remains, are, Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, Polybius, Diodorus Siculus, Dionysius Halicarnassæus, Josephus, Plutarch, Arrian, Appian, Diogenes Laertius, Philostratus, Dion Cassius, Herodian, Eunapius, Zosimus, Eusebius, and the Byzantine historians, Procopius, Agathias, &c.

The General History of Polybius originally consisted of forty books, containing the history of the most considerable nations in the known world, from the commencement of the second Punic war *ant. Chr. 217*, to the subversion of the Macedonian empire, *an. 164*. But only the first five, with some extracts or fragments, are now remaining*.

The Historical Library of Diodorus Siculus consisted of forty books, comprehending the principal transactions of almost all nations in the world, from the earliest antiquity, to the days of Julius Cæsar, including the fabulous ages before the Trojan war. But only fifteen books are now extant; that is, five between the fifth and eleventh, and the last twenty; with some fragments collected out of Photius and others.

Dionysius Halicarnassæus wrote twenty books of Roman Antiquities, extending from the siege of Troy to the first Punic war, *A. U. C. 488*. but only eleven of them are now remaining; which reach no farther than the year of Rome 312.

* See Crit. Rev. vol. xxxiii. p. 185.

Appian is said to have written the Roman history in twenty-four books, beginning with Æneas and ending with Trajan. Of this work we have nothing left, except some detached pieces, containing the history of the Punic, Syrian, Parthian, Mithridatic, Iberian, Hannibalic, and Illyrian wars; five books of the Civil Wars of the Romans, and a fragment or epitome of the Celtic war.

Dion Cassius wrote eighty books of history, from the foundation of Rome to the reign of Alexander Severus. The first thirty four, the greater part of the thirty fifth, some of the thirty sixth, and the last twenty are lost. We have therefore only twenty-five remaining; with some fragments, and an epitome of the last twenty by Xiphilinus.

The most eminent Latin historians whose works are come down to us, are, Julius Cæsar, Cornelius Nepos, Sallust, Livy, Paternulus, Val. Maximus, Q. Curtius, Tacitus, Florus, Suetonius, Justin, Sex Scriptores Historiæ Augustæ, Aurelius Victor, Eutropius, Marcellinus, &c.

But the historical works of several of these writers are mangled and imperfect.

Sallust is supposed to have written a Roman history of considerable extent. But there are only some fragments of it preserved.

Livy's Roman history originally consisted of 140, or as Petrarch and Sigonius suppose, of 142 books *, extending from the foundation of Rome to the death of Drusus, A. U. C. 744, or seven years before the Christian æra. Of this excellent work we have lost 107 books †; so that we have only thirty-five remaining, viz. the first ten, comprehending a period of about 460 years, and twenty five (some of which are imperfect) from the XXI. to the XLV. both included. These last contain the history of about fifty years, and terminate with the year of Rome 586. We have indeed an epitome of 140 books, which is usually printed with the works of Livy. But it is so very short, that it only serves to give us a general idea of the subject, and impress us with a more lively sense of the loss we have sustained by being deprived of the original.

It is generally agreed, that Velleius Paternulus comprised his elegant compendium of Roman history in two books. But almost all the first is lost, and the latter part of the second.

* Concerning the vulgar and pedantic division of Livy's books into Decades, see Crit. Rev. vol. xxxiii. p. 406.

† Morhoff says, we have lost 95: "Id monendum est, quinque & nonaginta eorum, temporum injuriâ, deperditos." De Patavinitate Livianâ, § 2.—This is a mistake: we have lost *above* 107, including the lacunæ in some of those which are extant.

*The first and second books of Q. Curtius are entirely lost, and in some of those which are preserved, there are several chasms.

There is a deficiency of several books in the *Annals* of Tacitus: viz. part of the V. the VII. VIII. IX. X. the former part of the XI. and the latter part of the XVI. containing the history of about two years, immediately preceding the death of Nero.

Of his *History* there are only five books remaining. This work begins with Galba, and hardly contains the transactions of two years. But between Galba and the death of Domitian, to which our author extended his narration *, there were twenty-eight years. It is evident therefore, that we have lost the greatest part of this valuable performance. St. Jerom mentions the extent of this writer's historical productions in the following passage: "Cornelius Tacitus, qui post Augustum, usque ad mortem Domitiani, vitas Cæsarum XXX. voluminibus exaravit †."

Justin has given the world an elegant epitome of Trogus Pompeius. Yet this epitome is but the mere shadow of Trogus.

Am. Marcellinus wrote thirty-one books, extending from the accession of Nerva to the death of Valens; but the first thirteen are wanting: and the last but one, as Claudius Chifflet supposes ‡, who has endeavoured to prove, that there were originally thirty-two.

These few remarks may be sufficient to shew the lamentable depredations, which have been committed on the literary treasures of antiquity, by Goths and Vandals, monks § and worms, and that notorious *belluo librorum*, *Tempus edax rerum*. If we were only to give a short account of all the Greek and Roman historians, whose writings have perished in the common wreck of literature, we should fill a volume. The learned reader may gratify his curiosity in this point, by consulting two excellent tracts, *De Historicis Græcis et Latinis*, by the celebrated Gerard Vossius.

* Libris, quibus res imperatoris Domitiani composui. Tacit. Annal. l. xi. § 11. See the subsequent passage from St. Jerom.

† Not. in Zachariæ, cap. xiv.

‡ Dissert. de Vitâ et Scriptis Ammiani.

§ Mirificus zelus fuit S. Gregorii, qui, ut S. Antoninus, et ex eo Jo. Hesselius, ex utroque Raderus ad Martialem tradit, Livium propterea combussit, quod in superstitionibus, et sacris Romanorum perpetuò versetur. Voss. de Hist. Lat. c. 19.—We could give many such examples of the infatuated zeal and bigotry of such blockheads as Gregory, if it were necessary.

Let us return to Livy.—The literary world has formed many vain expectations of recovering all the books of this excellent historian, which are wanting in our printed copies.

In 1551, when Simon Grynaeus published the forty-first and the four following books of Livy, from a manuscript, which had been preserved in a monastery at Worms, Erasmus, in a preface to that publication, congratulated the learned world on the acquisition of those books; and flattered himself with hopes, that all the rest might be discovered*.

Erpenius, about the year 1620, affirmed, that the whole history of Livy was extant in Arabia†. Peter della Valle, a noble Roman, who lived about the same time, and published his Travels into Turkey, Persia, India, &c. was fully persuaded, that it was in Arabic, in the grand signior's library at Constantinople‡. But though 10,000 crowns were offered for it by the French ambassador, and 5000 piastras by the great duke of Tuscany, it was never found.

About the year 1683, a Greek merchant of the isle of Chios, whose name was Justiniani, was in France, and offered the French king all the works of Livy. He pretended, that, at the great fire, which happened at Constantinople in 1665, this valuable work was, among other books, thrown out at a window, and picked up by a Turk, who privately sold it to a merchant, by whom he (the aforesaid Justiniani) was employed to sell it. The purchase was agreed upon; and the man was to have 10,000 crowns immediately paid him, for every two decades which he should produce.—But this Greek merchant proved an impostor, and never appeared with his Livy§.

Among other reports, concerning the lost books of this historian, we are told, that a copy of them was formerly in the abbey of Fontevault, in the province of Anjou; that the abbess, not knowing the value of the treasure she possessed, gave the parchment to an apothecary, who sold it to a man that used it in making battledores; and that a gentleman of

* Utinam faxit Deus O. M. ut hic author totus & integer nobis restituatur. Ejus rei spem nonnullam præbent rumores per ora quorundam volitantes; dum hic apud Danos, ille apud Polonos, alius apud Germanos, haberi Liviana quedam nondum edita jactitat. Certè postquam hæc reliquias præter omnium spem objecit fortuna, cur desperemus et plura posse contingere? &c. Erasmi Ep. l. xxviii. 15. P. Jovii Descript. Hebrid. p. 77.

† Orat. 2. de Ling. Arabicâ.—Erpenius died in the year 1624.

‡ Viaggi di P. della Valle par. 1. let. 9.—Voyage d'Italie, de Dalmatie, &c. par M. Spon, par. i. p. 253.

§ Morhoff de Patavin. Livianâ, p. 6.

learning accidentally discovered the nature and importance of the manuscript, when every sheet but one was destroyed*.

Some have supposed, that Livy is in a library at Fez. The learned Dr. Hyde informs us, that an ambassador from the emperor of Morocco assured him, that in his country they had one library, containing a hundred thousand volumes, in the Arabic language; another containing two hundred thousand, and a great number of inferior note.—If this be true, it is impossible to say, what valuable productions may be hoarded up in these repositories. The doctor himself seems to have been fully persuaded, that the works of the ancients are to be found in Arabian libraries: ‘In Arabum thesauris,’ says he, ‘adhuc latent multa veterum scripta, quæ Arabes eruditionis avidi, in suam linguam transtulerunt, quæ in originali linguâ deperdita, ex Arabiâ denuò repeti, & instaurari poterunt †.

Bishop Montague seems to have treated every notion of this kind as a visionary expectation. “Decades Livii, nullibi terrarum, opinor, restaurandæ, nisi forsitan, ut splendide mentitur Hispanus quidam παντοκρατωρ, apud ultimos hominum Æthiopes, in montis Amara βιβλιοταφίω ‡.”

In the first edition of Livy, which was published at Rome, A. D. 1470, from a manuscript in the possession of Victorinus Feltrensis, and in many subsequent editions, there were only twenty-nine books, and some of those imperfect.

The XXXIII. book, wanting about seventeen chapters at the beginning, and the latter part of the LX. from ch. 37. to the end, were first published at Mentz in 1518, from an ancient manuscript belonging to the church of St. Martin in that city.

The XLI. and the four following books, as we have already observed, were published in 1531 by Grynæus.

The first part of the XXXIII. was published at Rome in 1616, from a manuscript in the library of the cathedral church of Bamberg. Vossius looks upon it as a forgery, and says of the editor—“fucum fecit auritis Midis; non illis, quibus corniculis esse datum est, et qui nōrunt quid æra lupinis distent §.” But Gronovius defends its authenticity ||.

* Vide Colomesii Opuscula, p. 105. & Bibl. Choisie, p. 31. Menagiana, par. ii. p. 97. Fabricii Bib. Lat. l. i. c. 11.

† Hyde de Ling. Arab. Antiq. Orat. Vide Opera, Vol. ii. p. 456.

‡ Montacutii Apparatus ad Orig. Eccl. præf. § 29.—Montague probably alludes to Leo Africanus, who was born at Granada, and has given us a very fabulous description of Africa; but Leo says not a word of Livy. The only passage which can be applied to him, is lib. i. c. 25, but the author's words are extremely ambiguous. See Conringii Antiq. Acad. Suppl. 19.

§ De Hist. Lat. p. 94.

|| In Præf. Commentariorum.

Mr. Bruns, one of the gentlemen employed by Dr. Ken-
nicott in the collation of Hebrew manuscripts, has given us
an account of a small fragment of Livy, which he has lately
discovered.—We shall present our readers with the substance
of his narrative, and the fragment itself.

In May 1772, when he was in the Vatican library at Rome,
searching for manuscripts of the Bible, he met with a Latin
codex, containing the books of Tobit, Job, and Esther.
Upon taking it into his hands, he perceived, that these books
were written upon a manuscript of a more ancient date, the
characters of which appeared underneath, running trans-
versely.

This Codex, he says, consists of 176 leaves; and appears to
have been made up of different manuscripts, when the new
text was inscribed upon the old one; which he supposes to
have been about the eighth century. One part of these leaves
contains some of Cicero's Orations; but not any thing,
he apprehends, which is not already extant in our printed
copies.

At last he turned to some leaves containing a manuscript,
in that sort of character, which is called *uncialis*. The writ-
ing, he says, seemed to be of great antiquity, but the letters
were in many places hardly discernible, in others entirely ef-
faced. However, by the help of a glass, he immediately
found out several words, and in different places, *Contrebia*,
Pompeius, *Sertorius*, &c. On the front of one page he disco-
vered LIB. XCI. on another TITI LIVI. in a character hardly
perceptible. Upon this discovery, he consulted the epitome
of the ninety-first book of Livy; and found, that it treated
of the Sertorian war in Spain; from which he concluded,
that he had found a fragment of Livy which had not been
seen, or at least not sufficiently regarded, for many ages.

This fragment, which had probably made a part of some
antient volume, was included within four leaves of the Codex.

Mr. Bruns has accurately examined the character in which it
is written; and finds, that it resembles the earliest inscrip-
tions found at Herculaneum*, and some of the most ancient
manuscripts of the classics in the Vatican: he therefore con-
cludes, that this manuscript is of the highest antiquity.

Having spent two or three weeks in the investigation of this
valuable treasure, and extracted as much of it as he was able,
from the ruins in which he found it, he has presented the
public with the fruits of his labour.

* Vide Inscript. Tab. Herculan. xxxviii. tom. i. p. 207. Ope-
ris, *Pitture d' Ercolano*.

* Argu-

* *Argumentum Fragmenti.*

* Contrebiam tandem expugnavit Sertorius. In hiberna exercitu ducto instrumenta belli parari iussit, convocatosque populorum legatos ad reliqua belli cohortatus est. Vere Perpernam in Ilurcaonum gentem misit & Hertuleio de gerendo bello praecepta dedit. Ipse, post quamper varias gentes exercitum duxerat, at Calagarim Nasicam castra posuit, Masio atque Instelo nonnulla mandavit & per Vmconum agrum profectus Varciam venit.

* *Fragmentum ex Lib. XCI. Historiarum Titi Livi Patavini.*

* Tamen insequenti ipso pervigilante in eodem loco alia excitata turris prima luce miraculo hostibus fuit: simul & oppidi turris, quae maximum propugnaculum fuerat, subrutis fundamentis dehiscere ingentibus rimis & tu† * * * igni coepit: incendiique simul & ruinae metu territi Contrebienses de muro trepidi effugerunt, &, ut legati mitterentur ad dedendam urbem ab universa multitudine conclamatum est. Eadem virtus, quae inritantes oppugnaverat, victorem placabiliorem fecit. Obsidibus acceptis pecuniae modicam exegit summam, armaque omnia ademit. Transfugas liberos vivos ad se adduci iussit, & fugitivos, quorum maior multitudo erat ipsis, imperavit ut interficerent. Iugulatos de muro deiecerunt. Cum magna iactura militum quattuor & quadraginta diebus Contrebia expugnata, relictoque ibi L. Instelo * * * ad Hiberum flumen copias adduxit. Ibi hibernaculis secundum oppidum, quod Castra Aelia vocatur, aedificatis ipse in castris manebat, interdum conventum sociarum civitatum in oppido agebat. Arma ut fierent, pro copiis cuiusque populi per totam provinciam edixerat: quibus inspectis referre cetera arma milites iussit. Quae aut itineribus crebris aut oppu * * * facta erant nova, mane per centuriones divisit — — — tum quoque — — — s instruxit armis vestimenta qu — — — ipendium datum fabros — — — indeque exciverat quibus officinabus bitumen * * * ratione inita, quid in singulos dies effici posset. Itaque omnia simul instrumenta belli parabantur. Neque materia artificibus, praeparatis ante omnibus inixogivitium—udio, nec suo quisque operi artifex deerat. Convocatis deinde omnium populorum legationibus — — — quas ipse res * * quasque in oppugnandis urbibus hostium gessisset,

* The epitome of the xci. book, in our common editions, is as follows:—Cn. Pompeius, cum adhuc equester esset, cum imperio consulari adversus Sertorium missus est. Sertorius aliquot urbes expugnavit, plurimasque civitates in potestatem suam redegit. Ap. Claudius proconsul Thracas pluribus praeliis vicit. Q. Metellus proconsul L. Hirtuleium, quaestorem Sertorii, omni cum exercitu cecidit.

* Literæ ferè exesæ sic notantur: — — —
Literæ funditus deletæ: * * *

exposuit, & ad reliqua belli cohortatus est, paucis edoctos, quantum Hispaniae provinciae interesset, suas partes superiores esse. Dimisso deinde conventu, iussis, quae omnibus * * * ibi * * re suas: principio veris M. Pepernam cum viginti milibus peditum, equitibus mille quingentis in Ilurcaonum gentem misit ad tuendam regionis eius maritimam oram, datis praeceptis, quibus itineribus duceret ad defendendas socias urbes, quas Ponpeius oppugnaret, quibusque ipsum agmen Ponpeii ex insidiis adgrederetur. Eodem tempore & ad Herennuleium, qui in isdem locis erat litteras misit, & in alteram provinciam ad L. Hertuleium praeciens, quemadmodum bellum administrare (*sic*) vellet; ante omnia ut ita socias civitates tueretur, ne acie cum Metello dimicaret, cui neque auctoritate neque viribus par esset. Ne ipse quidem consilium — — — versus — — — neque in — — — surum eum credebat; si traheretur bellum, hosti, cum mare ab tergo provinciasque omnes in potestate haberet, navibus undique commeatus venturos: ipsi autem consumptis priore aestate, quae praeparata fuissent, omnium rerum inopiam fore. Perpernam in maritimam regionem sup — — — ut ea, quae integra adhuc ab hostis — — — riposset, & si qua occasio detur, incautos per tempus adgressurum. Ipse cum suo exercitu Hiberones & Autalcones progredi statuit, a quibus — — — mem cum — — oppugnarentur Celtib. urbes inploratam e se opem — — — missosque qui itinera exercitui Romano monstrarent — — — maritimamne oram, ut Ponpeium ab Ilercaonia & Contestania arceat utraque socia gente, an ad Metellum & Rusitaniam se convertat. Haec secum agitans Sertorius praeter Iberum amnem per pacatos agros quietum exercitum sine ullius noxa duxit. Profectus inde in Bursaonum & Casuantinorum & Graccuritanorum fines, evastatis omnibus proculcatisque segitibus, ad Calagurim Naficam sociorum urbem venit, transgressusque amnem propinquum urbi ponte facto castra posuit. Postero die M. Masium quaestorem in Arvacos & Cerindones misit ad conscribendos ex iis gentibus milites, frumentumque inde Contrebiā, quae Leucada appellatur, comportandum, praeter quam urbem opportunissimus ex Beronibus transitus erat, in quamcumque regionem ducere exercitum statuisset, & C. Instelum praefectum equitum Segoviam & in Vacreorum gentem ad equitum conquestionem misit, iussu cum equitibus Contrebiae sese operiri. Dimissis iis ipse profectus per Vmconum agrum ducto exercitu in confinio Vironum posuit castra. Postero die cum equitibus praegressus ad itinera exploranda, iussu pedite quadrato agmine sequi, ad Vareiam validissimam regionis eius urbem venit. Haud inopinantibus — — — advenerat, undique equitibus & suae gentis & Autric.

ADNOTATIONES.

* Inixogivitiū-udio.) His verbis, quae corrupta esse equis non videt, medelam ego afferre nullam potui. Sic enim in codice repperiuntur; litteraeque fere nihil evanuerunt, imprimis X. & VITIVM. Quae M. & V. interiacet littera, si modo una est, mihi non liquet. IXO forte corrigendum in IPSO. nam de legato quodam consulari Suetonius in vita Aug. § 88. quod IXI pro IPSI scripserit.

* Ad L. Hertuleium.) Nomen huius quaestoris Sertorii apud veteres auctores mendose scriptum. Epitomae Livianae habent: Herculeius; fragmenta Sallustiana: Hirtuleius, sed vera lectio in hoc fragmento servata est; ex quo colligitur, quam recte iudicaverit de antiquissimis veterum auctorum membranis Gronovius in praefatione editionis suae Livianae, qui, laudato vetustissimo Puteanorum fratrum libro, haec adiecit: & inde iudicium faciendum, quantum non in Livio tantum sed in aliis quoque priscis auctoribus restituendum esset, si ad illud aevum pretiumque codices nanciscamur.

* Ad Calagurim Nasicam sociorum urbem benit) benit pro venit more antiquo, in lapidibus & manuscriptis frequentato. Calaguritanos in hoc bello Sertorii partes secutos fuisse, lapis Barcinonae inventus indicat apud Marcanovam, Venetum, in libro manuscripto Bibliothecae Cornelianae (Cornaro) Venetiis, qui inscriptus est: *Res priscæ variaque antiquitatis monumenta undique ex omni orbe collecta*, cuiusque mihi copiam fecit praefectus huius Bibliothecae doctissimus & humanissimus Cyrillus Martini V. C. Commemorat enim Calaguritanum quemdam, qui bello Sertoriano Pompeanum vulneravit: cum autem titulum illum editum esse dubitem, huc totum transtuli.

D. M. S.
 BELLO SERTORIANO
 VVLNERE SVSCEPTO
 A KALAGVRITANO NITIA
 QVEM MANV EXTEMPLO
 FODI: ACQVIRENDAE
 VALITVDINIS GRATIA
 BARCINONAM PECIL.
 ESCVLAPIO VOTA VOVI
 TEMPLVM INGRATO VT
 FIERET STATVI MORTE
 INMATVRA ME INTERCI
 PIENTE ET AB VALITVDI
 NE ET AB AVRA ADVLE
 SCENTEM MISERABILI
 TER DESTITVTVM VIDES
 EQVITVM MAGISTER SP POMPEANVS.

This is the whole fragment. Mr. Bruns is of opinion, that it may not only receive illustration from Paterculus, Florus,

Sallust,

Sallust, Plutarch, and Orosius, who have occasionally treated of the Sertorian war, but may likewise reflect a light on those writers. He supposes also, that it may be of use in determining points of grammatical controversy, relative to the proper method of writing certain Latin words; and of still greater importance, with respect to geography, as the names of several people and towns of Celtiberia are mentioned in it, which, he thinks, do not occur in any other author.

If it should be objected, that we cannot depend on the orthography of a word, or the integrity of a sentence, which was hardly visible, Mr. Bruns replies: "*illud enim in primis operam dedi, ut ne aliæ à me ponerentur literæ, ac verè in M.S. essent:*" that he was particularly careful not to give a single letter in the transcript, which was not undoubtedly in the original.' And in order to give the reader all the satisfaction in his power, he has not only printed this fragment on a smaller type, but in its original form.

V. *The Works in Architecture of Robert and James Adam, Esquires. No. I. containing Part of the Designs of Sion-house, a magnificent Seat of his Grace the Duke of Northumberland, in the County of Middlesex. Folio. 11. 13. Becket.*

THE high reputation which the ingenious authors of this work have justly acquired in architecture, cannot fail to render the publication of their designs an agreeable event to all who are lovers of that art. We behold in the several edifices they have planned, that noble air of grandeur, or that elegant simplicity, which we admire in the magnificent and beautiful models of ancient Greece and Rome. The variety and novelty which they have also with so much taste introduced into their compositions, afford a strong additional consideration in favour of the improvement which will accrue to architecture from the description and engraving of their works. Possessed of a happy invention, which is directed, but not cramped, by a veneration for the antique, they have in a manner enlarged the bounds of architectural science, and brought into existence graces, which a servile dread of deviation from the strict rules of art had hitherto left undevised. It is not, however, in architecture only that this work will be useful, as it will also exhibit elegant designs in every kind of ornamental furniture.

That the work may be more generally understood, the preface and verbal description of the designs are printed both in English and French. As the preface is not of great length we shall insert the English copy for the satisfaction of our readers.

" Some

* Some apology may, perhaps, be requisite for giving to the world a book of architecture, after so many works of this kind have been published in Italy, France, and England, during the two last centuries.

* The novelty and variety of the following designs will, we flatter ourselves, not only excuse, but justify our conduct, in communicating them to the world.—We have not trod in the path of others, nor derived aid from their labours. In the works which we have had the honour to execute, we have not only met with the approbation of our employers, but even with the imitation of other artists, to such a degree, as in some measure to have brought about in this country, a kind of revolution in the whole system of this useful and elegant art. These circumstances induced us to hope, that to collect and engrave our works would afford both entertainment and instruction.

* To enter upon an enquiry into the state of this art in Great Britain, till the late changes it has undergone, is no part of our present design. We leave that subject to the observation of the skilful; who, we doubt not, will easily perceive, within these few years, a remarkable improvement in the form, convenience, arrangement, and relief of apartments; a greater movement and variety, in the outside composition; and in the decoration of the inside, an almost total change.

* The massive entablature, the ponderous compartment ceiling, the tabernacle frame, almost the only species of ornament formerly known in this country, are now universally exploded, and in their place, we have adopted a beautiful variety of light mouldings, gracefully formed, delicately enriched, and arranged with propriety and skill. We have introduced a great variety of ceilings, freezes, and decorated pilasters, and have added grace and beauty to the whole, by a mixture of grotesque stucco, and painted ornaments, together with the flowing rainceau, with its fanciful figures and winding foliage.

* Whether our works have not contributed to diffuse these improvements in architecture, in this country, we shall leave to the impartial public.—We, by no means, presume to find fault with the compositions, or to decry the labours of other authors; many of whom have much merit and deserve great praise. Our ambition is to share with others, not to appropriate to ourselves the applause of the public; and, if we have any claim to approbation, we found it on this alone: that we flatter ourselves, we have been able to seize, with some degree of success, the beautiful spirit of antiquity, and to diffuse it, with novelty and variety, through all our numerous works.

‘ We intended to have prefixed to our designs a dissertation concerning the rise and progress of architecture in Great Britain; and to have pointed out the various stages of its improvement from the time that our ancestors, relinquishing the Gothick style, began to aim at an imitation of the Grecian manner, until it attained that degree of perfection at which it has now arrived.—We have made many observations, and collected various materials to enable us to illustrate this curious and entertaining subject; but to digest and arrange these, would require more time than we can command amidst the multiplied occupations of an active profession. We, therefore, reserve the subject for some period of greater leisure.

‘ The rules and orders of architecture, are so generally known, and may be found in so many books, that it would be tedious, and even absurd, to treat of them in this work. We beg leave, however, to observe that among architects destitute of genius and incapable of venturing into the great line of their art, the attention paid to those rules and proportions is frequently minute and frivolous. The great masters of antiquity were not so rigidly scrupulous, they varied the proportions as the general spirit of their composition required, clearly perceiving, that however necessary these rules may be to form the taste and to correct the licentiousness of the scholar, they often cramp the genius and circumscribe the ideas of the master.

‘ We have given a short explanation of the plates, accompanied with such observations as we imagined might be both useful and entertaining.

‘ We have thought it proper to colour with the tints, used in the execution, a few copies of each number, not only that posterity might be enabled to judge with more accuracy concerning the taste of the present age, and that foreign connoisseurs might have it in their power to indulge their curiosity with respect to our national style of ornament; but that the public in general might have an opportunity of cultivating the beautiful art of decoration, hitherto so little understood in most of the countries of Europe.

‘ We hope it will be thought no more than justice to ourselves, thus to ascertain the originality of our designs, and enable the world to discover, where they have been imitated with judgment, and where they have been servilely copied and misapplied.—An artist who feels in himself an inability of presenting to the public any thing from his own store of invention, has no title to be offended if an author is solicitous to vindicate himself to posterity from any imputation of plagiarism.

‘As this work will not only exhibit designs in architecture, but also in every kind of ornamental furniture, we imagine it may be particularly useful to those whose professions require taste and elegance in that way.’

The plates in this Number represent the plan and elevation of the gateway and porters-lodges of Sion-house; plan and elevation of the bridge over a branch of the river Thames; perspective view of the same bridge; plan of the principal floor of Sion-house; section of the two ends of the hall, shewing the square and semicircular recesses, as also the steps rising to the anti-room, and the additional scenery occasioned by that circumstance; detail, or parts of the hall at large; miscellaneous designs of various pieces of furniture.

VI. *The Antiquities of England and Wales: being a Collection of Views of the most remarkable Ruins and antient buildings, accurately drawn on the Spot. To each View is added an historical Account of its Situation, when and by whom built, with every interesting circumstance relating thereto. Collected from the best Authorities. By Francis Grose, Esq. F. A. S. Vol. I. 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Hooper.*

TO facilitate the study of our national Antiquities the author has introduced this volume with a copious account of various particulars relative to the ancient buildings in England, which is compiled from the best authorities, and digested in a clear, comprehensive, and methodical arrangement. From this preliminary discourse the reader will not only reap much entertainment and instruction, but be prepared for the better understanding the subsequent part of the work. It is therefore proper that we begin our review with a general detail of the subjects which are mentioned in this sensible and interesting Preface.

The first subject treated of, is Castles. Of these the author observes, that such as now remain are, for the most part, of no higher antiquity than the Norman conquest; for though the Saxons, Romans, and perhaps even the ancient Britons, had castles built with stone, yet they were few in number, and, at that period, either so much destroyed, or decayed, that little more than their ruins were remaining; a circumstance which many writers suppose to have contributed to the success of William's invasion. The erection of castles appears to have kept pace with the progress of the feudal system. But becoming soon extremely numerous, and their owners exercising intolerable oppression in their neighbourhood, it was agreed, in a treaty between king Stephen and Henry II. when duke of Normandy, that all the castles built within a certain

period, should be demolished; and, in consequence of this stipulation, many are said to have been actually razed. On Henry's accession to the throne several others were demolished; and a prohibition was issued from erecting new ones without an especial licence from the king.

We shall here present our readers with the account of the general mode of construction of those ancient buildings.

‘ The materials of which castles were built, varied, according to the places of their erection; but the manner of their construction seems to have been pretty uniform. The outsides of the walls were generally built with the stones nearest at hand, laid as regularly as their shapes would admit; the insides were filled up with the like materials, mixed with a quantity of fluid mortar, which was called, by the workmen, grout work: a very ancient method of building, used by the Romans, and quoted by Palladio, and all the writers of architecture. The angles were always coigned, and the arches turned with square stones brought from Caen in Normandy, with which the whole outside was now and then cased. Sometimes, instead of stone, the insides of the walls were formed with square chalk, as is the castle of Guildford; and even the pillars and arches of a groined vault in that town, supposed formerly to have belonged to the castle. When the Normans found the ruins of an ancient building on the site of their intended structure, they either endeavoured to incorporate it into their work, or made use of the materials; as may be seen by many buildings of known Norman construction, wherein are fragments of Saxon architecture, or large quantities of Roman bricks; which has caused them often to be mistaken for Roman or Saxon edifices.

‘ The general shape or plan of these castles, depended entirely on the caprice of the architects; or the form of the ground intended to be occupied; neither do they seem to have confined themselves to any particular figure in their towers; square, round and polygonal, oftentimes occurring in the original parts of the same building.

‘ The situation commonly chosen was an eminence; or else the bank of a river.

‘ The names and uses of the different works of ancient fortifications, can only be ascertained by an attention to minute historical relations of sieges in those times; ancient records relative to their repairs; and the labours of our glossographers. From these I shall endeavour to illustrate them.

‘ To begin then from without:—the first member of an ancient castle was the barbican. The etymology of this word, as explained by diverse authors, is given in the notes; and although in this they somewhat differ, yet all agree that it was a watch-tower, for the purpose of descrying an enemy at a greater distance. It seems to have had no positive place, except that it was always an out-work, and frequently advanced beyond the ditch; to which it was then joined by a draw-bridge, and formed the entrance into the castle. Barbicans are mentioned in Framlingham and Canterbury castles. For the repairing of this work, a tax, called barbacanage, was levied on certain lands.

‘ The work next in order was the ditch, moat, graff, or fofs; for by all these different names it was called. This was either wet or dry, according to the circumstances of the situation; though, when it could be had, our ancestors generally chose the former:

but they do not seem to have had any particular rule for either its depth or breadth. When it was dry, there were sometimes subterranean passages, through which the cavalry could pass. Ditches of royal castles were cleaned at the public expence; or that perhaps of the tenants of the lands adjoining, by an imposition, or tax, as appears from several charters in the Monasticon, whereby the monks are exempted from that charge. This ditch was sometimes called the Ditch del Bayle, or of the Ballium; a distinction from the ditches of the interior works. Over it was either a standing, or a draw-bridge, leading to the ballium. Within the ditch was the walls of the ballium, or out-works. In towns, the appellation of ballium was given to a work fenced with palisades, and sometimes with masonry, covering the suburbs, but in castles was the space immediately within the outer wall. When there was a double enceinte of walls, the areas next each wall were stiled the outer and inner ballia. The manner in which these are mentioned [by Camden] in the siege of Bedford Castle, sufficiently justify this position: which receives farther confirmation, from the enumeration of the lands belonging to Colchester Castle; wherein are specified, "The upper bayley, in which the cattle stands; and the nether bayley, &c."

' The wall of the ballium in castles was commonly high, flanked with towers; and had a parapet embattled, crenellated, or garretted for the mounting of it. There were flights of steps at convenient distances; and the parapet often had the merlons pierced with long chinks, ending in round holes, called oillets.

' Father Daniel mentions a work, called a bray, which he thinks somewhat similar to this ballium.

' Within the ballium were the lodgings and barracks for the garrison and artificers, wells, chapels, and even sometimes a monastery. Large mounts were also often thrown up in this place: these served like modern cavaliers, to command the adjacent country.

' The entrance into the ballium was commonly through a strong machiolated and embattled gate, between two towers, secured by a herse or portcullis. Over this gate were rooms, originally intended for the porter of the castle: the towers served for the corps de garde.

' On an eminence, in the center, commonly, though not always, stood the keep, or dungeon; sometimes, as in the relation of the siege of Bedford Castle, emphatically called the tower; it was the citadel, or last retreat of the garrison, often surrounded by a ditch, with a draw-bridge, and machicolated gate; and occasionally with an outer wall, garnished with small towers. In large castles it was generally a high square tower, of four or five stories, having turrets at each angle; in these turrets were the stair-cases; and frequently, as in Dover and Rochester Castles, a well. If, instead of a square, the keep or dungeon happened to be round, it was called a JULLIET, from a vulgar opinion, that large round towers were built by JULIUS CÆSAR.

' The walls of this edifice were always of an extraordinary thickness; which has enabled them to outlive the other buildings, and to withstand the united injuries of time and weather: the keeps, or dungeons, being almost the only part now remaining of our ancient castles.

' Here were the state-rooms for the governor, if that title may be given to such gloomy cells; whose darksome appearance induced Mr. Borlase to form a conjecture, more ingenious than well-ground.

grounded; namely, that these buildings were styled dungeons from their want of light; because the builders, to strengthen their ramparts, denied themselves the pleasure of windows: not but most of them had small chinks, which answered the double purpose of admitting the light, and served for embrasures, from whence they might shoot with long and cross bows. These chinks, though without they have some breadth, and have the appearance of windows, are very narrow next the chambers, diminishing considerably inwards. Some of the smaller keeps had not even these conveniences, but were solely lighted from a small perforation in the top, or skylight, called courts. It was from this sort Mr. Boilase formed his supposition.

‘The different stories were frequently vaulted, being divided by strong arches; sometimes indeed they were only separated by joists: on the top was generally a platform, with an embattled parapet, from whence the garrison could see and command the exterior works.’

After delineating the usual plan of the ancient castles, the author delivers an account of the various engines by which sieges were conducted in these times. He observes that the method of attack and defence of fortified places, practised by our ancestors, was much after the manner of the Romans. They had engines for throwing stones and darts, of various weights and sizes, which were distinguished by the appellations of balista, catapulta, espringals, terbuchets, mangonas, mangonels, bricolles, the petrary, the matafarda, the war-wolf. For approaching the walls, they had also moveable towers, and machines answering to the pluteus and vinea, or testudo and musculus of the Romans. Our author observes that surprising anecdotes are related of the force of these machines,

‘No wall, says he, however thick, was able to resist their stroke: and in the field, they swept away the deepest files of armed men. With them were thrown not only large mill-stones, but sometimes the carcasses of dead horses, and even living men. The former, according to Froissart, was practised by John, duke of Normandy, son of king Philip de Valois, when he besieged the count de Hainhault in Thyn-Leveque, in the Low-Countries, and whom he thereby obliged to capitulate, on account of the infection caused in the town; and, as Camden says, it was also done by the Turks, at Negroponte.

‘The other, namely throwing a living man, is also mentioned by Froissart. It happened at the siege of Auberoche, in Gascoigne; where the English, being closely pressed by the count de Laille, lieutenant-general to Philip de Valois, they sent out an esquire, with a letter, which he was to endeavour to deliver to the earl of Derby, their general; but being taken, his letter was read, and afterwards tied round his neck; and he, being put into an engine, was thrown back into the castle, where he fell dead among his companions.

‘They were also sometimes used for the execution of persons condemned to die: perhaps somewhat like the method practised in the East Indies.’

Besides giving a perspicuous verbal description of the various engines, the author has farther illustrated them by the addition of plates; and to this detail he has subjoined a circumstantial account of the arms, offensive and defensive, which were used in battle before the invention of gunpowder. The account of these subjects is closed with a recital of the military laws to be observed in time of war; concerning which the author observes, they do not differ greatly from those now in force. 'Obedience and subordination, says he, good order in camp and quarters, a detection of false musters, and the safety of persons bringing provisions, being immutably necessary to the very existence of every army: these must therefore always be strongly enforced, both by rewards and punishments; and will ever give a similarity to the chief articles in the military code of every age and nation.' It is to be observed, however, that the laws to which our author here alludes, are those enacted by Henry V. and preserved in a book, entitled, *de Studio Militari*, written by Nicholas Upton, in the fifteenth century.

The subject on which our author next enters is monasteries. He observes that the æra of the first institution of these religious houses in England is extremely uncertain; some historians and antiquaries fixing it soon after the Christian epoch, while others, with greater probability, suppose that event not to have taken place till some years after the commencement of the sixth century. The date of the foundation of nunneries in this country, he observes, is involved in the same obscurity with the origin of the monastic life. By some writers these houses are supposed to have been nearly coeval with those for monks; but our author very justly adopts the opinion that the first English nunnery seems to be that at Folkstone in Kent, erected by king Eadbald, A. D. 630. He observes, that in the early times of these religious foundations, abbesses were in so much esteem, for their sanctity and prudence, that they were summoned to the council of Beconsfield; and that the names of five are subscribed to the Constitutions there enacted, without that of one abbot.

The devastations of the Danes in the ninth century seem to have almost entirely erased the monastic foundations in England; till king Edgar, about the year 960, having promoted St. Dunstan to the see of Canterbury, that prelate became a great restorer of the religious houses. By his persuasion, a reformation of the English monks was made in the council of Winchester, A. D. 965; when rules and constitutions were framed for the government of those societies.

Like the invasions of the Danes, the Norman conquest proved another æra unfavourable to the religious foundations. William, whose thirst of empire spurned at the restraints of superstition, had no sooner fixed himself upon the throne, than he began to infringe the privileges of monks and nuns, depose their abbots, seize their possessions, and transfer the property to his followers. He likewise obliged them to alter their missals, and exchange the ancient Gregorian service for a new form, composed by William Fiscamp. A stop was put to these measures, however, by the mediation of Osmund, bishop of Salisbury; who also composed a new ritual, afterwards called *Missale in usum Sarum*, and generally used in England, Scotland, and Ireland. But the interposition of the prelate had not the effect of re-establishing the affairs of religious houses entirely upon their former foundation; for from this time a distinction continued to be made between the lands belonging to bishops, and those that were the property of convents; which had hitherto been considered as common. Henceforward, the bishops assumed the power of assigning what part they thought proper, for the support of the prior and convent, and reserved the best estates for themselves and their successors in office. Another grievance, introduced also at this period, was the alteration made in the nature of the tenure whereby the clergy in general held their lands; which, from frank almoign (a mode of subordination subject to no duties or imposts but the *trinoda necessitas*, or such as they imposed upon themselves in ecclesiastical assemblies) was changed into tenure, in baronage, by knights service.

Mr. Grose recites distinctly the progress of religious foundations through the several subsequent reigns to the commencement of the Reformation. It appears, that within an hundred and fifty years after the Conquest, or before the accession of Henry III. there were founded and refounded, four hundred and seventy six abbeys and priories, besides eighty-one alien priories. After this period, many chantries, houses of friars, hospitals, and colleges were founded; but very few houses of monks, nuns, or canons.

Having traced the monastic institutions in England from their origin to their total suppression, our author delivers an account of the different rules, or orders, with their discipline, dress, and other appertaining particularities. These orders are distinguished into religious and military. Of the former, were all monks, nuns, and canons; of the latter, the knights hospitallers, and the knights templars. This part of the work contains such a clear, though concise, detail of the several

veral subjects, as must afford great satisfaction to the reader; who may also have the pleasure of beholding a representation of all the orders of monks, friars, nuns, &c. in their proper habits.

The subject to which our author next proceeds in his very interesting Preface, is the ancient modes of architecture in this country. These, he observes, are divided by modern antiquaries into Saxon, Norman, and Saracenic, or the species vulgarly called Gothic.

Mr. Grose produces strong authorities in refutation of the opinion, that the Saxon churches were mostly built of timber, and were destitute both of arches and pillars; observing, that such an allegation is not only contradicted by the express testimony of several cotemporary, or very ancient writers, but also by the remains of some edifices universally allowed to be of Saxon workmanship; one of which is the ancient conventual church at Ely.

We shall lay before our readers the observations here produced on the subject of the ancient English architecture.

‘Many more authorities might be cited, was not the matter sufficiently clear. Indeed, it is highly improbable, that the Saxons could be ignorant of so useful a contrivance as the arch: many of them, built by the Romans, they must have had before their eyes; some of which have reached our days: two particularly are now remaining in Canterbury only; one in the Castle-yard, the other at Riding-gate. And it is not to be believed, that once knowing them, and their convenience, they would neglect to make use of them; or having used, would relinquish them: besides, as it appears, from undoubted authorities, they procured workmen from the continent, to construct their capital buildings, “according to the Roman manner.” This alone would be sufficient to confute that ill-grounded opinion; and at the same time proves, that what we commonly call Saxon, is in reality Roman architecture.

‘This was the style of building practised all over Europe; and it continued to be used by the Normans, after their arrival here, till the introduction of what is called the Gothic, which was not till about the end of the reign of Henry I. so that there seems to be little or no grounds for a distinction between the Saxon and Norman architecture. Indeed, it is said, the buildings of the latter were of larger dimensions, both in height and area; and they were constructed with a stone brought from Caen in Normandy, of which their workmen were peculiarly fond: but this was simply an alteration in the scale and materials, and not in the manner of the building. The antient parts of most of our cathedrals are of this early Norman work.

‘The characteristic mark of this style are these. The walls are very thick, generally without buttresses; the arches, both within and without, as well as those over the doors and windows, semi-circular, and supported by very solid, or rather clumsy columns, with a kind of regular base and capital: in short, plainness and solidity constitute the striking features of this method of building. Nevertheless the architects of those days sometimes deviated from
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this rule: their capitals were adorned with carvings of foliage, and even animals; and their massive columns decorated with small half columns united to them; grooves cut spirally winding round them, or overspread with a kind of lozenge net-work. An instance of the second may be seen in the Undercroft, at Canterbury; the two last occur at Durham; but the most beautiful specimens of this work are to be met with in the Ruined Choir at Orford in Suffolk. Their arches too, though generally plain, sometimes came in for more than their share of ornaments; particularly those over the chief door: some of these were overloaded with a profusion of carving.

It would be impossible to describe the different ornaments there crowded together; which seem to be more the extemporaneous product of a grotesque imagination, than the result of any particular design. On some of these arches is commonly over the key-stone represented God the Father, or our Saviour surrounded with angels; and below a melange of foliage, animals, often ludicrous, and sometimes even indecent subjects. Partly of this sort is the great door at Barfreston church in Kent.

‘ The idea of these artists seem to have been, that the greater number of small and dissimilar subjects they could here assemble, the more beautiful they rendered their work. It is not, however, to be denied, that the extreme richness of these inferior parts, served, by their striking contrast, to set off the venerable plainness of the rest of the building; a circumstance wanting in the Gothic structures; which being equally ornamented all over, fatigue and distract, rather than gratify the eye. I would not here be understood to assert, that all the Saxon ornamented arches are devoid of beauty and taste; on the contrary, there are several wherein both are displayed, particularly in some belonging to the church of Ely. Besides the ornaments here mentioned, which seem always to have been left to the fancy of the sculptor, they had others, which were in common use, and are more regular. Most of them, as mentioned by Mr. Bentham, in his ingenious preface to the History of Ely, the reader will find in the note; and specimens of them are given in the miscellaneous plate, in the view of the east end of Barfreston church; and in the entrance into what was the Stranger's Hall, in the monastery of Christ's Church, Canterbury, built by archbishop Lanfranc. The small pillars, or columns, were formerly richly ornamented; but, by order of one of the deans, were chipped plain. The escutcheons over these are remarkable; they not being customary at the time of its erection.

‘ About the time of Alfred probably, but certainly in the reign of Edgar, high towers and cross aisles were first introduced; the Saxon churches till then being only square, or oblong buildings, generally turned semicircularly at the east end. Towers at first scarcely rose higher than the roof; being intended chiefly as a kind of lanthorn, for the admittance of light. An addition to their height was in all likelihood suggested on the more common use of bells; which, though mentioned in some of our monasteries in the seventh century, were not in use in churches till near the middle of the tenth.

‘ To what country, or people, the style of architecture called Gothic, owes its origin, is by no means satisfactorily determined. It is indeed generally conjectured to be of Arabian extraction, and to have been introduced into Europe by some persons returning from the crusades in the Holy Land. Sir Christopher Wren was of that opinion; and it has been subscribed to by most writers
who

who have treated on this subject. If the supposition is well grounded, it seems likely that many ancient buildings of this kind, or at least their remains, would be found in those countries from whence it is said to have been brought; parts of which have at different times been visited by several curious travellers, many of whom have made designs of what they thought most remarkable. Whether they overlooked or neglected these buildings, as being in search of those of more remote antiquity, or whether none existed, seems doubtful. Cornelius le Brun, an indefatigable and inquisitive traveller, has published many views of eastern buildings, particularly about the Holy Land: in all these, only one Gothic ruin, the church near Acre, and a few pointed arches, occur; and those built by the Christians, when in possession of the country. Near Ispahan, in Persia, he gives several buildings with pointed arches; but these are bridges and caravanferas, whose age cannot be ascertained; consequently, are as likely to have been built after as before the introduction of this style into Europe.

At Ispahan itself, the Mey doen, or Grand Market-place, is surrounded by divers magnificent Gothic buildings; particularly the Royal Mosque, and the Talael Ali-kapie, or Theatre. The magnificent bridge of Alla-werdie-chan, over the river Zenderoet, 540 paces long, and seventeen broad, having thirty-three pointed arches, is also a Gothic structure: but no mention is made when or by whom these are built. The Chiaer Baeg, a royal garden, is decorated with Gothic buildings; but these were, it is said, built only in the reign of Scha Abbas, who died anno 1629.

One building indeed, at first seems as if it would corroborate this assertion, and that the time when it was erected, might be in some degree fixed: it is the tomb of Abdalla, one of the apostles of Mahomet, probably him surnamed Abu Becr. If this tomb is supposed to have been built soon after his death, estimating that event to have happened according to the common course of nature, it will place its erection about the middle of the seventh century: but this is by far too conjectural to be much depended on. It also seems as if this was not the common style of building at that time, from the Temple of Mecca; where, if any credit is to be given to the print of it, in Sale's Koran, the arches are semicircular. The tomb here mentioned, has one evidence to prove its antiquity; that of being damaged by the injuries of time and weather. Its general appearance much resembles the east end of the chapel belonging to Ely House, London: except that, which is filled up there by the great window, in the tomb, is an open pointed arch; also, the columns, or pinnacles, on each side, are higher in proportion.

Some have supposed that this kind of architecture was brought into Spain by the Moors (who possessed themselves of a great part of that country the beginning of the eighth century, which they held till the latter end of the fifteenth;) and that from thence, by way of France, it was introduced into England. This at first seems plausible; but if it was fact, the public buildings erected by that people, would have borne testimony of it: but not the least traces of Gothic architecture are to be met with in the portraits of the Moorish palaces, given in *Les Delices d'Espagne*, said to be faithful representations; and where, as well as in an authentic drawing of the Moorish Castle at Gibraltar, the arches are all represented semicircular. Perhaps a more general knowledge of these buildings would

would throw some lights on the subject, at present almost entirely enveloped in obscurity: possibly the Moors may, like us, at different periods, have used different manners of building. Having thus in vain attempted to discover from whence we had this style, let us turn to what is more certainly known, the time of its introduction into this kingdom, and the successive improvements and changes it has undergone.

‘ Its first appearance here was towards the latter end of the reign of king Henry II. but was not at once thoroughly adopted; some short solid columns, and semicircular arches, being retained, and mixed with the pointed ones. An example of this is seen in the west end of the Old Temple Church; and at York, where, under the choir, there remains much of the ancient work; the arches of which are but just pointed, and rise on short, round pillars: both these were built in that reign. More instances might be brought, was not the thing probable in itself; new inventions, even when useful, not being readily received. The great west tower of Ely Cathedral was built by bishop Rydel, about this time: those arches were all pointed.

‘ In the reign of Henry III. this manner of building seems to have gained a complete footing; the circular giving place to the pointed arch, and the massive column yielding to the slender pillar. Indeed, like all novelties, when once admitted, the rage of fashion made it become so prevalent, that many of the ancient and solid buildings, erected in former ages, were taken down, in order to be re-edified in the new taste; or had additions patched to them, of this mode of architecture. The present cathedral church of Salisbury was begun early in this reign, and finished in the year 1258. It is entirely in the Gothic style; and, according to Sir Christopher Wren, may be justly accounted one of the best patterns of architecture of the age in which it was built. Its excellency is undoubtedly in a great measure owing to its being constructed on one plan, whence arises that symmetry and agreement of parts, not to be met with in many of our other cathedral churches; which have mostly been built at different times, and in a variety of styles.—

‘ In the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII. or rather towards the latter end of that of Henry VII. when brick buildings became common, a new kind of low pointed arch grew much in use: it was described from four centers, was very round at the haunches, and the angle at the top was very obtuse. This sort of arch is to be found in every one of cardinal Wolsey's buildings; also at West Sheen; an ancient brick gate at Mile End, called King John's Gate; and in the great gate of the palace at Lambeth. From this time Gothic architecture began to decline, and was soon after supplanted by a mixed style, if one may venture to call it one, wherein the Grecian and Gothic, however discordant and irreconcilable, are jumbled together.’

—‘ The marks which constitute the character of Gothic, or Saracenic architecture, are its numerous and prominent buttresses, its lofty spires and pinnacles, its large and ramified windows, its ornamental niches or canopies, its sculptured saints, the delicate lace-work of its fretted roofs, and the profusion of ornaments lavished indiscriminately over the whole building: but its peculiar distinguishing characteristics are, the small clustered pillars and pointed arches, formed by the segments of two intersecting circles; which arches, though last brought into use, are evidently of a
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more simple and obvious construction than the semicircular ones; two flat stones, with their tops inclined to each other, and touching, form its rudiments, a number of boughs stuck into the ground opposite each other, and tied together at the top, in order to form a bower, exactly describe it: whereas a semicircular arch appears the result of deeper contrivance, as consisting of more parts; and it seems less probable, chance, from whence all these inventions were first derived, should throw several wedge-like stones between two set perpendicular, so as exactly to fit and fill up the interval.

The author has farther elucidated this curious subject by a variety of notes, extracted from approved writers; in compiling which, Mr. Grose discovers himself to have consulted every authority from whence any information could be drawn; and as an additional illustration, he has presented his readers with engraved specimens of Saxon and Gothic arches, ornaments, &c.

The Preface to this work concludes with a brief account of Domesday-book, begun by order of William the Conqueror, and containing an account of the lands in almost all the counties of England; with a description of the quantity and particular nature of them; mentioning the rents, taxations, the several possessors, with their number, and distinct degrees. For the satisfaction of the curious, a specimen is given of the writing of this venerable register.

The Preface to this work being of an interesting nature, has so long engaged our attention, that we shall postpone an account of the Antiquities till our next Review.

VII. *The Intent and Propriety of the Scripture Miracles considered and explained, in a Series of Sermons, preached in the Parish Church of St. Mary le Bow, in the Years 1769, 1770, and 1771; for the Lecture founded by the hon. Robert Boyle, Esq. By the rev. Dr. Henry Owen, Rector of St. Olave, Hart-street, and F. R. S. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Rivington. [Concluded.]*

IN our last Number we have considered the first volume of Dr. Owen's discourses: we come now to the second.

In the thirteenth, and the three following sermons, the author treats of the moral state of the Israelites, from the time of their degenerating into idolatry (about twenty years after the death of Joshua) to the end of the Babylonian captivity; of the several dispensations, and the suitableness of the miracles which occur in that period, to the great end they were designed to promote.

In the 14th sermon, we meet with the following observation.

“When God overwhelmed the host of Pharaoh, his chariots, and his horsemen in the Red-sea, he caused that sea, by

closing behind upon them, to drive their bodies, together with their *armour*, full on the shore where the Israelites stood. The Israelites stripped them, and accoutred themselves; and were thus prepared (which is a striking circumstance) to vanquish Canaan with the arms of Egypt.*

This, as the author observes, is 'a striking circumstance;' but rests only on the authority of Josephus*, who freely indulges himself in such conjectures, where the sacred writers are utterly silent.

The sixteenth sermon contains, among others, the following observations on the moral tendency of the Babylonian captivity.

With respect to the Jews, 'if they prided themselves in their high privileges; if they imagined, as they certainly did, that, being the peculiar people of God, and inhabiting the city which he had made choice of for his peculiar residence, they must needs in consequence, let their moral character stand as it would, be always secure of his favour and protection; how fully must they be convinced of the emptiness of this sophistry, when they found their temple and city destroyed, and themselves cast out into a heathen land, not only stripped of all their honours, but rendered objects of contempt and reproach!

'In the land of their captivity, all that the prophets formerly urged against their profane and detestable practices, revived afresh in their minds, and sounded again in their ears; and their present abject, wretched condition, (the consequences of such practices) sunk them deep into their hearts. And hence must arise an utter detestation of those shameful idolatries, and their concomitant vices, which they well knew was the cause of their sufferings

In consequence of this temporary humiliation, 'idolatry ceased among them; their attachment to God grew strong and inviolable; and their zeal for his honour active and permanent. Insomuch, that when they were restored again to their own land, they thought it not sufficient merely to rebuild the temple at Jerusalem, but, in the warmth of their piety, proceeded farther; and erected synagogues in different cities, where the law was read over on every sabbath, and other acts of devotion were performed. Hereby the true knowledge of God and his religion was improved and confirmed among them; the practice of their duty was impressed and enforced upon them; and their abhorrence and detestation of idolatry became more fixed, resolute, and determined. . . .

* Vide Antiq. Jud. lib. ii. sub finem.

* Nay,

' Nay, even the nations, who still continued slaves to idolatry, were highly indebted, though they knew it not, to the benign influence of this salutary dispensation. For what were those exalted improvements, which were made, through the course of this period, in civil and religious knowledge, and which, by the application of philosophers, amazingly thinned the darkness of heathenism, but lucid emanations, conveyed by tradition, or perhaps derived by a nearer way, from this full and copious fountain of light? And what were those refined institutes of morality, planned by the most renowned legislators, and established in several heathen countries, but chiefly transcripts from the Mosaic laws? So that this glorious dispensation, like the sun, while it shone on one country with meridian rays, and on others in proportion to their distance from it; threw forth moreover some beams of light, that bent below the horizon; and thereby cheered that thick gloom, in which those people were involved, who had not yet the happiness to behold its orb.'

The fifth part of this work, comprehended in Sermon XVII. treats of the moral state of the world, at the time of our Saviour's appearance, and of the necessity of a new revelation.

Part the sixth, comprehended in Sermon XVIII—XXIII. treats of the connexion between the doctrines of Christ and the moral exigencies of mankind, and of the analogy between his miracles and doctrines.

As this analogy is a point of some consequence in the Christian dispensation, our readers will not be displeased with the following reflections.

' Let it be premised, that all the wiser moralists, Gentiles as well as Jews, commonly described the human nature under a two fold distinction—that of the *inward* and the *outward* man; and spoke of the one as a type or representation of the other. Hence then the diseases of the body present themselves in another view; quite different from that in which they were seen before, considered as the consequences, and the chastisements of sin. They appear now to be natural emblems of the several disorders and depravations of the soul. And therefore every miraculous cure of any particular distemper of the body became, of course, a significant emblem of the power of Christ to remove the correspondent depravation of the mind. Frequent imitations of this sort the attentive reader will find dispersed through various parts of the Gospel. Nor are there some instances wanting, where the application is made in direct and express terms.

' Christ often declared, that he was come into the world to remove the ignorance, and to enlighten the understanding.

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of mankind: To prove this, he restored sight to those who were blind. To make it appear, that he was able, as he affirmed, to remove the blindness, the spiritual blindness, of error and ignorance, he frequently cured that corporeal blindness, which is the most natural emblem or image of it. And that such cures were peculiarly designed, as they were exquisitely adapted, to confirm the truth of this doctrine, is evident from the reflection which our Saviour makes, previous to his cure of the blind man, recorded in the IXth of John. As long, says he, as "I am in the world, I am the light of the world." By this he turned their thoughts to himself, as to the fountain of light and knowledge; and led them to consider the miracle he was about to perform, as a direct evidence of what he had asserted. He restored, or rather reformed the man's eyes to the perception of light; and thereby shewed he could also restore, or re-form the mind to the perception of knowledge. And it was plainly with the same view, when he observed how the malice and perverseness of the Jews withheld them from admitting this necessary consequence, that he afterwards subjoined, in allusion to the miraculous cure he had wrought, that "for judgment he was come into this world; that they who see not, might see; and that they who see, might be made blind."

The Scripture informs us, that "the Son of God was for this purpose manifested, that he might utterly destroy the works of the devil; and redeem us from the power of Satan to himself." Now to convince the world of his ability to accomplish this arduous undertaking, he frequently dislodged or cast out devils; and delivered the possessed from their tormenting power. And his casting them out in so wonderful a manner, was a proof by example of his being come to overturn the kingdom of darkness; and of his being endowed with authority to check and controul the usurped dominion of our grand enemy. This application is our Saviour's own. For when the seventy rejoiced, that "the devils, through his name, were subject unto them; he answered and said, 'I beheld Satan, as lightning, fall from heaven, &c.'"—his power is broken; his dominion destroyed: and the superiority, which you have now shewn in miraculously dispossessing dæmons, is a proof and pledge of the spiritual conquest, which you, and all my faithful disciples, shall finally obtain over them and their prince."

So our Saviour directs us to conclude. But in these and other instances, the connection between the miracles and doctrines is so very natural, so close and discernible, that it could hardly have been overlooked, though Christ had never pointed it out. His having, however, pointed it out, is of singular use

life and service. It serves to shew, that what infidels urge concerning the disparity of miracles and doctrines, is entirely false and frivolous. It serves to shew, that there is the same strict relation, the same inviolable connection, between the miracles and doctrines of Christ, as there is between experiments in natural philosophy and the conclusions that result from them. And hence it likewise serves to shew, after what manner we may safely apply those other miracles, which are not applied by Christ himself. We may consider, for example, his restoring the lame, weak, and palsied members of the body, as a specimen of his power to restore the enfeebled, benumbed, and distorted faculties of the mind. His cures of leprosy and all other loathsome diseases, we may consider as tokens of the power he possessed to cleanse the soul from the pollutions of sin. In fine, we may consider his making men, however diseased, all on a sudden vigorous and healthy; as an earnest of his making them, provided they followed his moral instructions, eminently good, virtuous, and happy.

In this manner the learned author endeavours to illustrate the nature, intent, and propriety of that vast and extensive chain of miracles, which runs through the Old and New Testament; shewing, as he goes along, that the miracles under the former dispensation were properly calculated to prove, that Jehovah is the one true God, the CREATOR and GOVERNOR of the world; and those under the latter, to demonstrate, that Jesus Christ is the promised Messiah, the Redeemer and Saviour of mankind.

The last discourse contains the inferences deducible from this enquiry, in favour of divine revelation.

The excellent Mr. Boyle founded his lecture, if we rightly remember, about the year 1691. Since that time a vast variety of sermons have been published in defence of revealed religion. Christianity has been viewed and reviewed on all sides, and the most obvious arguments in its favour have been long since anticipated. It requires therefore an extraordinary genius to strike out of the beaten track, and produce any thing materially new, and worthy of the public attention. Dr. Owen's discourses are, perhaps, in this respect, as good as could reasonably be expected. His plan has not been professedly marked out, and prosecuted by any of his predecessors; and his performance bears the signatures of taste and learning.

If in our last Review we have ventured to point out some passages in his discourses, which we thought exceptionable, he will impute it, we hope, not to any personal prejudice, but to a rational zeal for the interest and honour of Christian-

ity; which should never be supported, as it was by the good fathers of old, by pious frauds, fallacious arguments, fabulous relations, and rabbinical dreams.

VIII. *The History of the Island of Man; from the earliest Accounts to the present Time. Compiled from the Public Archives of the Island, and other Authentic Materials, by the late Mr. Rolt. 8vo. 2s. sewed. Nicoll.*

WHEN the blemishes of posthumous publications are such as appear to proceed from inadvertency only, they are in a particular manner entitled to the candour of criticism, and the editor is properly chargeable with the inaccuracies of the author. We are sorry to observe that the work before us is destitute of any claim to this indulgence: the faults it contains admit of no extenuation, nor are they compensated by the smallest degree of merit, in point of historical composition. The annals of the Isle of Man are scarcely distinguished by one single incident that is worthy of being transmitted to posterity; and would therefore, even in the hands of the most respectable writer, afford but a very jejune and uninteresting narrative. The subject, however, is rendered still more exceptionable by the awkward and ridiculous manner in which it is here treated. Without any farther introduction we shall give our readers a short specimen of the work.

• Sir John Stanley delivered up his patents to be vacated in the high court of chancery in England, and obtained a new grant of the Isle of Man, from king Henry IV. who, by his letters patent under the great seal of England, dated at Westminster, the sixth of April, in the seventh year of his reign, granted to sir John de Stanley, knight, the island, castle, pele, and lordship of Man; and all the islands and lordships to the said Island of Man appertaining, which did not exceed the value of four hundred pounds by the year: to hold, to the said sir John, and his heirs and assigns, all the islands, castle, pele, and lordship aforesaid, together with the royalties, regalities, franchises, liberties, sea ports, and all things to port reasonably and duly belonging, homages, fealties, wards, marriages, reliefs, escheats, forfeitures, waifs, estrays, courts baron, views of frankpledge, leets, hundreds, wapentakes, wreck of the sea, mines of lead and iron, fairs, markets, free custom, meadows, pastures, woods, parks, chaces, lawns, warrens, assarts, purprestures, chiminages, piscaries, mills, moors, marshes, turbaries, waters, pools, fish ponds, ways, passages, and commons, and other commodities, emoluments, and appurtenances whatsoever, to the said islands, castle, pele, and

and lordship, in any wise appertaining or belonging; together with the patronage of the bishopric of the said Island of Man; and also knights fees, advowsons, and patronages of abbies, priories, hospitals, churches, vicarages, chapels, chaunteries, and the ecclesiastical benefices whatsoever, to the said islands, castle, pele, and lordship likewise belonging, of the said king and his heirs for ever, by leige homage, and the service of rendering to the king two falcons, once only; that is, immediately after the same homage done, and of rendering to his heirs, kings of England, two falcons on the day of their coronations, instead of all other services, customs, and demands, as freely, fully, and entirely, as sir William le Scrope deceased, or any other lord of the said island, was ever in former times, in the best and freest manner accustomed to have and hold those islands, castle, pele, and lordship, with the appurtenances, together with all the premisses therein mentioned; the said liege homage, and rent of falcons, only excepted.

Here follows another passage equally elegant and concise.

‘ By indenture enrolled of record, dated the 18th of June in the 7th year of his majesty, “ Between king James I. of the one part; and Robert earl of Salisbury lord treasurer of England, Henry earl of Northampton keeper of the king’s privy seal, William earl of Derby, Henry earl of Huntingdon and Elizabeth his wife, Grays Bridges lord Chandoy and Anne his wife, and John Egerton knight and Francis his wife, of the other part”; but not executed or acknowledged of record by the earl of Derby; “ the said lords and ladies, did give, grant, bargain, sell, surrender, and confirm, to his majesty, his heirs and successors for ever, the island, castle, pele, and lordship of Man, with the islands and lordships to the same appertaining, and all other rights thereto belonging,” too tediously to be expressed in the words of history, which should have little connection with the terms of law. “ To hold to the king, his heirs and successors, for ever.”

‘ His majesty, by other letters patent, granted to Robert earl of Salisbury, and Thomas earl of Suffolk, the island, castle, pele, and lordship of Man; with all their rights, members and appurtenances; with all his islands, lordships, castles, monasteries, abbies, priories, farms, messuages, lands, tenements, and hereditaments whatsoever, to the Island of Man appertaining; with all rights and liberties, from the tautology of homages to the jurisdiction of admiralty, including the mines, fairs, markets, customs, and an infinite scroll of phrases peculiar to the common law, and repugnant to common sense.’

This declared aversion to tautology appears to be of very short continuance; for the author immediately adds, 'as also the *patronage* of the bishopric of the Island of *Man*, and the *patronage* of the bishopric of *Sodor*, and the *patronage* of the bishopric of *Sodor and Man*.'

So unhappy is this historian in his style, that almost every page contains instances of ungrammatical expression. The following quotation is of this kind.

'King James I. by his letters patent under the great seal of England, dated at Westminster the 17th of March in the 3d year of his reign, "Did, in consideration of a fine of one hundred and one pounds fifteen shillings, and eleven pence, paid into the receipts of his majesty's exchequer by sir Thomas Leighe, knight, and Thomas Spencer esquire, and for other considerations, demise, lease, and to farm lett, to the said sir Thomas Leighe knight, and Thomas Spencer, all those houses, scites, circuits, and precincts, formerly the monastery and priory of Rushing and Douglas; and the Fryers Minors, commonly called the Grey Fryers of Brymaken, otherwise Bymaken, with all his appurtenances in his Island of Man, &c.'

How pertinent, sententious, and philosophical, are our author's sentiments, when, as seldom is the case, he ventures beyond the phraseology of indentures, deeds of feoffment, and such like elegant forms of writing! Speaking of king Charles the First, he says,

'That inconsistent man, who deserves not the name of king, acted consistently as far as he could with arbitrary principles. A thrice royal dupe, to lose the possessing of three kingdoms, for not acknowledging one legal right. Such a king might be to himself supreme; yet he fatally found his subjects would not be the extreme.—Strafford; great and unhappy Wentworth! Thy virtues were above all allegations of vice.—Can other times say the same?'

With a noble poetic enthusiasm our author has here sacrificed propriety of expression to antithesis, and even to rhyme.

It would be endless to remark the verbal improprieties which occur in this history. We meet with laws being *promulged*, people *expulged*, and an island numerously *popularized*. Among other tautologies, the word *lordship* is so frequently made use of, that in the compass of about two pages, we find it no less than sixteen times.

Our readers, we presume, will excuse us from giving a more particular account of a work, where there is neither propriety of language, elegance of style, nor entertaining or useful information, and which is so extremely unworthy of being presented

sented to the public, that it seems to be incapable of affording the least degree of pleasure even to a Manksman the most interested in what relates to the history of his country.

IX. *The Scripture History of Abraham, to which is annexed, a Dissertation on the Sceptre of Judah, in which the Comments of Bishop Sherlock and Bishop Warburton upon that Subject are particularly examined. By W. Gilbank, A. M. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Doddsley.*

IN this work the author endeavours to shew, I. That the seemingly unconnected and unmeaning incidents of Abraham's life, are the orderly parts of one entire dispensation, and pregnant with information.

II. That the Jewish theocracy was instituted at the covenant of circumcision.

III. That this hitherto unthought of æra of the theocracy, and the considering of Judah's enemies as the delegates of God in his government, afford an easy and accurate interpretation of the prophecy of Jacob concerning the sceptre of Judah, and reciprocally confirm each other.

The theocracy is supposed to be included in this promise to Abraham—*I will bless them that bless thee, and curse him that curseth thee*, Gen. xii. 3. and to have commenced conditionally at the time of making this promise; but not to have been ratified and made irrevocable till the covenant of circumcision; when the Almighty engaged not only to be 'the God of Abraham and his seed, in the sense in which he was the God of all mankind; not only to be a God to him and to his seed after him, in the sense in which the heathen applied that title to their national deities, but to be their lawgiver and their king; a God giving national rules of action, and enforcing the execution of those rules by temporal and capital sanctions.' In conformity to this idea the author thus explains the celebrated prophecy of Jacob concerning the sceptre of Judah.

'God, in consequence of the covenant, which he made with Abraham, when the rite of circumcision was instituted, shall not cease (by his delegates, viz. angels, judges, kings, priests, and prophets, for the exaltation of his people, or spoilers and conquerors, for their correction) from being the temporal governor of, and law-giver to, Judah and his descendants, nor shall those descendants, however oppressed, however diminished by slaughter, by captivity, by desertion, or declension to idolatry, cease to be a collective body of people, numerous and consequential enough to be the objects of such a government until the Messiah come.'

This hypothesis concerning the commencement of the theocracy carries with it the recommendation of novelty, and is supported by many pertinent observations.

Some interpreters have thought, that the sceptre of Judah signifies the sovereignty of the Jewish nation at large; others have imagined, that the שֵׁבֶט is a *tribal* sceptre*. But these notions are supposed to be attended with considerable difficulties, on account of the various revolutions in Judea, by which the Jews were repeatedly deprived of every earthly sceptre.

These difficulties our author endeavours to avoid, by applying the sceptre to the theocracy, and by proving, that this form of government suffered no interruption from the time of its first institution to the coming of Christ.

In the course of this argument he shews at large, (from Lev. xxvi. &c.) that the oppressors, spoilers, and conquerors, as well as the judges and kings of Israel, were the appointed delegates of God in the government of his people.—This is an ingenious expedient. There are, however, some objections to this interpretation of the sceptre, which Mr. Gilbank has not removed.

First, it may be said, that the sovereignty of Judah in particular is implied in these words: *Thy hand shall be in the neck of thine enemies; thy fathers children shall bow down before thee, &c.* and that the sceptre is only an ensign of this sovereignty; whereas the theocratic sceptre was not the sceptre of Judah, but of God.

Secondly, God extended his government over all the posterity of Jacob without distinction. *Israel*, as the Psalmist speaks, *was his dominion*. With what propriety therefore could the patriarch appropriate this theocratic sceptre to the tribe of Judah; which he evidently does in these words: *The sceptre shall not depart from Judah, nor a lawgiver † from between his feet, until shiloh come?*

If these objections should be thought of any weight, Mr. Gilbank may remove them in the next edition of his dissertation.

This tract is written with that candor, modesty, and good sense, which cannot fail of meeting with a favourable reception from those, who are conversant in speculations of this nature.

* שֵׁבֶט not only signifies a sceptre, a staff, or a rod of justice, but a tribe; because all of the same tribe were under the same command, the same staff.

† Judah is twice expressly styled *the lawgiver* in the Psalms: *Judah is my lawgiver*, Ps. lx. 7. cviii. 8. in allusion probably to the prophecy of Jacob. See 1 Chron. ii. 2,

X. *The History and Antiquities of the Ancient Burgh of Great Yarmouth, in the County of Norfolk. Collected from the Corporation Charters, Records, and Evidences, and other most authentic Materials.* By Henry Swinden. 4to. 18s. boards. Payne.

THE author of this work, dying while it was in the press, left the care of its publication to John Ives, jun. esq. F. S. A. As this editor is still alive, and may be sensible of our compliment, we shall review his part of the performance first. This chiefly consists of a preface, which, for its many excellencies, may serve as a model for future compositions of the same kind. In point of expression it is certainly inimitable; but let it speak for itself. ‘Amidst *the every kind* of literary improvement which has been made.’—Mark, reader, *the every kind* of beauty contained in this expression. A common author would have expressed his thoughts far more simply, but writers of great genius are fond of soaring above the common herd. The article *the* has a particular and definite signification. *The book* which I bought; that is, *that particular book*. Rome was mistress of *the world*; that is, *this world* in which we live. *The every kind* of literary improvement, therefore, means *that, or this particular, every kind* of literary improvement; the excellency of which phraseology cannot be sufficiently admired.

‘This work,’ says the editor, ‘is *the result of the best part of twenty years*, during which period the laborious author employed himself in collecting *every material* suitable to his subject, and with that industrious attention, and unwearied perseverance, as few have imitated—none exceeded.’ *The result of twenty years pains, labour, or study*, would have been so trite an expression, that we are not surprised at the editor’s inventing a new one. *Twenty years*, in his style, means *twenty years pains, labour, or study*—and doubtless, it is a curious improvement in language. But this work is *the result of only the best part of twenty years*. We confess ourselves to be at a loss here, not being able to ascertain whether by *the best part* of a year be meant *the summer, or the day-time throughout the year*; which soever is meant, the author, we find, had the good fortune, during that period, to collect *every material* suitable to his subject; in which he is certainly to be envied by every other collector of materials for such a work. He did it, indeed, *with that industrious attention, and unwearied perseverance, as few have imitated*. Shame on the grammarians, who for ages have plodded on in one beaten track, unenlightened by a single ray of genius, and never perceived with what elegance *as might*

be substituted for *which*, and who will still, perhaps, disdain to follow the laudable example set them by Mr. Ives. To proceed—'It is not a mere narrative taken up at random, and embellished with poetic diction, but a regular and diligent enquiry into *every* antient record that can elucidate or establish it—every thing that had the least air of tradition *be* scrupulously avoided—real fact and indisputable authority form the basis of the History of Yarmouth.'—As the editor does not inform us *who* it was that avoided what had an air of tradition, we cannot give our readers any positive information on that subject: if it was the author, we think he pays him no great compliment; tradition is frequently to be relied on as fully as written evidence, and has even been received as testimony in courts of law. In contradiction, however, to the editor's assertion, we find in the 85th page the following passage:—'There is a tradition that the North Gate was built by the person or persons who had amassed a considerable sum of money by being employed in burying the dead in the time of the plague.' Our editor proceeds—'neither will it fail of being interesting to the reader—a splendid and opulent town gradually *ascending* from the tents of a few fishermen, &c.' Here we have a new and curious idea excited—that of the *ascension* of a town; for which our thanks are due to the editor, as we should probably never have had it without his assistance. In return for it we excuse his throwing here and there a stumbling-block in our way. We are now stopt at one of them: after mentioning Manship and Nash, two preceding writers on the affairs of Yarmouth, the editor adds, 'The little assistance our author has derived from the former, he has carefully acknowledged, *the latter*—as he wrote no eulogium—could be of no service—but the generous and friendly assistance the following gentlemen were pleased to afford him cannot be passed by unnoticed. This *him* can only refer to the latter, namely Nash; and yet we have a suspicion the assistance was afforded the author of the present History of Yarmouth. Truly, Sir, you ought to forgive us if we do not always comprehend your meaning.

Of all the assistance afforded the author, that of Anthony Norris, of Barton in Norfolk, esq. was the most extraordinary. This gentleman, the editor informs us, communicated a copy of Domesday. What, in the name of common sense, could this be? We have, indeed, heard of Domesday Book; and if the editor means this by Domesday, we must conclude he is trying to puzzle his readers again. He seems, indeed, disposed to divert himself at their expence; for he informs them that Mr. John Bell furnished the author with many
ma-

materials, particularly *a copy of the subscription* for bread for the poor, inserted at page 952 : we cannot absolutely determine how clear-sighted some readers may be ; we have examined not only the 952nd page, but every other page in the volume, without finding *a copy of that subscription* ; we have only met with an account in one of the notes that such a subscription was made, and that the poor had loaves sold them at a low price, to which they were entitled on showing tickets which had been given them : those the author, (with the usual accuracy of an antiquarian) acquaints us, were made of *stiff card paper*.

The Preface concludes as follows : ‘ The author closed his life and his work together—the last sheet was in the press at the time of his decease—to me he committed the publication of it—a short but uninterrupted friendship subsisted between us—his assiduity, industry, and application, will appear in the course of this work—in private life he was the gentleman, the scholar, and the Christian.’ We copy this concluding paragraph, to give a specimen of Mr. Ives’s style, which flows so harmoniously, that future writers will probably aim in vain to equal it.

At the end of the volume we find a copy of the inscription on the author’s monument ; as this probably is inserted by the editor, we chuse, after having paid our compliments so particularly to him for his Preface, not to pass this by unnoticed.

We now proceed to the History of the Ancient Burgh of Great Yarmouth ; in which we find but few particulars worthy of the notice of our readers. The charters granted to such a town as Yarmouth, the contests betwixt it and the neighbouring towns, the inscriptions, epitaphs, &c. in its church, and the names of its bailiffs, mayors, &c. may be thought matters of consequence by its inhabitants, but are little deserving the attention of the public in general. The history of a metropolis may on many accounts be interesting to a whole nation, as, indeed, may those of other places, provided they serve to throw light on some important event, but the History of Yarmouth is as uninteresting as that of almost any corporation in the kingdom.

With respect to the execution of the work ; we find the language in many places very inaccurate, but the industry of the author is exceedingly remarkable ; as, however unimportant his materials are, he has collected so many, that his book consists of nearly a thousand pages closely printed. It is to be considered, indeed, that great part of it, being copied

pied from old Latin records, has an English translation annexed, which serves to swell the volume.

Our author, having quoted Verstegan and Spelman concerning the ranks and degrees into which the ancient Saxons were divided, takes occasion to copy some depositions relative to the lord of a manor's claiming some persons as his bondmen for being the grandsons of one who had been formerly a bondman on the same manor. As these depositions are a curiosity, we shall transcribe one of them.

' To all Crysten pepyll to whom thes present wrytyng shall come. Syr John Paston, knyght, Henry Wylton, gentylman, alderman of Norwich, of the age of Lxxx and iiii yerys and more, Robert Pynchmore of Norwich, gentylman, Robert Whynbergh of the same, gentylman of the age of Lx yerys and more, John Bumpstede of Bylokby, gentylman, of the age of Lxviii yerys. John Peers of Yermouth, merchaunte, of the age of Lxxx yerys, Water Lemyngton of Fylby, gentylman, of the age of Lxxvi yerys, Thomas Pallyng of Clyppesby, yomon, of the age of Lxxii yerys, Water Hawe of the age of Lxxx yerys and more, Thomas Ramage of Hemesby, of the age of Lxxxvi yerys, John Wryght of Heynford of the age of Lxxx yerys, and Nicolas Peytewyn of Fylby, of the age of Lx yerys and more, send greeting. Whereas Syr Edmond Jenney, knyght, and John Groce, esquier, now possessours of the maner of Sloley, as we understand, of late have made cleyme to Robert Ufford, otherwyse cally'd Robert Galte of Clyppesby, John Ufford, otherwyse called John Galte, of the same town, Thomas Ufford, otherwyse cally'd Thomas Galte, of Yermouth, and Peers Ufford, otherwyse call'd Peers Galte, of Norwich, sones to one Robert Ufford, otherwise called Robert Galte of Clyppesby, to be of *natyle* and *servyle* condicion *regardaunt* * to the said maner of Sloley; and for as moche as it is meretory to testyfy and declare the trougthe, we the seid Syr John Paston, Henry Wylton, Robert Pynchmore, Robert Whynberg, John Bumpstede, John Peers, Water Lemyngton, Thomas Pallyng, Water Hawe, Thomas Ramage, John Wryght, and Nicholas Peytewyn, testefye for very trougthe, that about the vith yere of the reyne of kyng Henry the vith, on Peers Galte and on Emme Ufford thanne beyng servantes in howfold together, with Olyver Groos, at Sloley, esquier, thanne lord of the seid maner of Sloley, the same Peers Galte begate the said

* One who had charge to do all base services within the manour, &c.

Emme with chylde, they both being on marryed, and for that cause the seid Emme, felynge hyr selff with chylde, fled from Sloley to Heynford Parsonage, and there was delyvered; Syr Robert Pynchemore, to whom the seid Emme was of Kyn-drede, thanne beyng parson there, was godfadyr to the same chylde, and named hym Robert; wich Robert was fadyr to the said Robert Ufford and John Ufford of Clyppysby, Thomas Ufford of Yermouth, and Peers Ufford of Norwich, which mater we have as well knowe by the opyn and comon voyse of the cuntre, as by reporte of maney credybyll personys; and also we have weele knowe that the seid Robert Ufford, sone to the seid Emme Ufford, and fadyr to the seid Robert, John, Thomas, and Peers, was and hathe be ever reported and reputed for a bastarde born in the manere aforseyed.'

Two other depositions are added, in testimony of the same matter; after which is subjoined the following declaration.

' And we the seid Syr Edmond Jenney, knyght, and John Groos, esquier, now seasy'd and possessy'd of the maner of Sloley, in consydracion that we verely understand these testefyenges and deposicions affore reherfy'd to be gode and trewe, to whom we gyffe our feythfull credens, as it becometh us of ryght in savyng of our consyence, refusyng all our foreseyd cleyme, repute, accepte, afferme, and declare the foreseyd Robert Ufford the fadyr, sone to the seid Emme Ufford, to be bastard borne, in the maner and form aforeseid, and also the foreseid Robert Ufford, othyrwyse cally'd Robert Galte, now of Clypyby, John Ufford, otherwyse cally'd John Galte, of the same towne, Thomas Ufford, otherwyse cally'd Thomas Galte, of Yermouth, and Peers Ufford, othyrwise cally'd Peers Galte, of Norwich, sones to the seid Robert Ufford, the fadyr, and all the yssue of the same Robert Ufford the fadyr, to be free, and of free condicion for ever more. In witnesse whereoff, to these presentes we have sette our seales the xiith day of January, in the xviiiith yere aforeseid. And for as moche as our seales to many be unknowe, we have made request to the ryght reverend fadyr in God, my lord of Norwich, to testefye these premysses under his seale.'

' And we Richard, by the grace of God bishop of Norwich, at the request and desyr of the seid Syr Edmond Jenney, knyght, and John Groos, wytnessyng the seid deposicions before us, by them pleynty declared; to these presentes, have set our seal the xxth day of January in the xviiiith yere of kyng Henry VII.'—These good folks owed their freedom to their grandmother's dishonesty; for had she been married to Peers Galte,

Galte, they would have been slaves, though she was always free.

There is an error in the dates of these papers ; but whether it be the author's, or not, we cannot determine. The depositions are dated on different days in December in the 18th year of Henry VII. the declaration which follows them is dated January 12, and the attestation of it by the bishop of Norwich is dated January 20, yet both of them are also said to be in the aforesaid 18th year of king Henry VII.

We are astonished that in an age so enlightened as the present, in which the kind of slavery just mentioned is looked on with abhorrence, a still worse degree of it keeps its ground ; we mean that of the Negroes in our colonies, who are carried from their own countries, where they enjoyed liberty in its greatest extent, to be slaves for life to severe taskmasters.

In defence and in illustration of the particulars mentioned in the course of the work, our author has in his notes copied a great variety of charters, records, &c. these will undoubtedly be highly acceptable to those who desire a thorough information of what concerns the town of Yarmouth, by whom the whole work, as its narrative is regular and distinct, cannot but be looked on in a favourable light.

XI. *Narrative of the Mutiny of the Officers of the Army in Bengal, in the Year 1766. Written by Henry Strachey, Esq. Secretary to Lord Clive during his last Expedition to India, and lately given in Evidence to the Secret Committee of the House of Commons. 8vo. 3s 6d. Becket.*

UNacquainted as we are with those intricate connexions and invisible springs which give motion to the machine of state-policy, we are inclined to regard this publication of the secret committee as an expiatory offering to offended justice. Repeated attempts having been made in the house of commons to ruin the fame and fortune of one of the most distinguished characters in this country ; it reflects honour on the impartiality of the committee, that they exhibit in their last report an authentic narrative of a very important transaction in lord Clive's government, scarce known to the public ; willing, as it would seem, to establish that noble lord's reputation beyond the power of detraction.

History cannot produce a more singular event than the general mutiny of the officers in Bengal. In the heart of a great empire, held in subjection by a handful of British subjects,

jects, hedged in upon every side by doubtful friends or suspected enemies; discontents also prevailing in the civil administration, we here see almost the whole military power combined to dispute the authority of government, or rather to distress the governor. Fortune had often before prepared for lord Clive very extraordinary occasions of signalizing the greatest courage and capacity. She now produced this further opportunity for the exercise of vigour and constancy, as a proof that the genius of her favourite could rise superior to every danger and difficulty. An impeachment of his conduct was prepared with all the sophistry of law, the bitterness of resentment, and malignity of envy. He combated his enemies with their own weapons, astonished the house of commons with uncommon powers of elocution, and completing the measure of his own fame, overwhelmed in shame and disgrace the contrivers of a plot to destroy his reputation and fortune.

It appears to us that the secret committee were struck with the very extraordinary nature of the event recorded in this narrative, as well as the candour, good sense, and moderation of the writer; since they have swelled their last report far beyond the usual measure, to give room for a transaction foreign to their professed design.—Mr. Strachey, who had acted in the capacity of secretary to lord Clive in India, being called by the committee to give evidence respecting the mutiny, delivered in this narrative, which would seem from circumstances to have been written at the time. Why it was so long withheld from the public, must, we conjecture, have proceeded from that gentleman's tenderness for individuals, and a diffidence of his own talents; unless, perhaps, he wished to set an example to the hasty writers of the present times, of implicit obedience to that precept of the Roman poet, *nonum prematur in annum*. Whatever were his motives for this delay, certain we are, that readers of taste and judgment will thank the secret committee for enlivening their dry mercantile researches, with an elegant little composition, replete with entertainment. Nothing, indeed, can be more dispassionate than the manner of our writer, who relates facts with the naked simplicity of truth, studiously avoiding every expression which might inflame the passions of his readers against the delinquents; and candidly assigning to the members of administration their full share of merit, in the spirited support given to the governor.

When lord Clive, in the year 1764, undertook, at the solicitation of the East-India company, to reform many grievous abuses which had taken deep root in the settlement of Bengal,

a reduc-

a reduction of military expences was a principal object with the directors. They gave his lordship particular and positive instructions to attempt striking off an extraordinary allowance called *double batta*, which had long been enjoyed by the officers on the Bengal establishment. Repeated orders to the same effect were before issued to preceding governors; but either the times would not admit of the experiment, or their resolution yielded to the remonstrances of the army. Lord Clive saw the necessity of the measure, less with a view of saving to the company, than of establishing the authority of the council, and correcting a dissolute spirit and profligacy of manners, incompatible with military order and discipline. Mr. Strachey's own words, in the opening of the narrative, fully explain the situation of things and nature of the proposed reduction.

‘ It is many years since the East-India company, in consideration of the extraordinary expences and inconveniencies unavoidably incurred during the campaigns in that country, indulged the officers in their service with a certain allowance per diem, exclusive of their pay. This allowance originally went, and still goes by the name of “*batta*,” or field expences.

‘ When the English forces took the field, in conjunction with the nabob Jaffier Ally Cawn, after the battle of Plassey, our military expences were, agreeably to treaty, defrayed by his excellency, who likewise thought proper to encrease the emoluments of the officers, by granting them a double allowance, which of course obtained the name of “*double batta*,” and lord Clive, at that time, in order that the gentlemen should not too confidently depend upon upon the continuance of this new bounty, represented to them, that it was merely a temporary indulgence of the nabob, an indulgence not enjoyed by our officers in any other part of India, and could only continue to those in Bengal during his excellency's pleasure. The expence of this double batta however, though first introduced and paid by Jaffier Ally Cawn, was, in process of time, thrown upon the company; who, unwilling to adopt such an expensive precedent, notwithstanding the revenues of several districts of lands had been assigned over by the nabob to the company for defraying the charges of the army, repeatedly issued orders, in the most positive terms, that it should be abolished. But the situation of their military and political affairs in Bengal was so frequently critical, and the superior servants in the civil branch so averse, perhaps through want of resolution, to abridge the officers of any emolument, that a remonstrance from the army never failed to convince the governor and council of the impropriety of such a reduction.—It must be remembered, that the accomplishing this business was one of the principal points of reformation pressed upon lord Clive in the year 1764, when, at the request of a general court of proprietors of East-India stock, he was prevailed upon to accept once more the government of Bengal. With resolution and disinterestedness he steadily pursued, from the hour of his arrival at Calcutta, such measures as seemed best calculated to effect the great

purposes of his appointment; and the tranquillity of the country being the necessary ground-work of all other permanent regulations, he concluded, as soon as possible, a general peace throughout the provinces, upon terms both honourable and advantageous to the company.

‘ The war being ended, it was judged proper to withdraw our forces from the dominions of our new ally, Sujah Dowla, and to quarter them at such places, and in such divisions, as would not only be most conducive to the health of the soldiers, but most convenient for furnishing detachments, which from time to time might be required to assist in the collection of the revenues, or to march upon other accidental services. The whole army was regimented agreeably to the plan proposed by lord Clive, and approved by the company, before his lordship embarked for India. It was also divided into three brigades, each brigade consisting of one regiment of European infantry, one company of artillery, six battalions of seapoys (or black infantry), and one troop of black cavalry, with field officers in proportion.

‘ The first brigade was ordered to garrison Monghyr (300 miles from Calcutta) under the command of lieutenant colonel sir Robert Fletcher, in the absence of brigadier-general Carnac, who had been called down to the presidency, to take his seat at the select committee, of which the court of directors had appointed him a member. The third brigade, commanded by colonel sir Robert Barker, was cantoned at Bankipore, near Patna, about 100 miles beyond Monghyr; and the second brigade, commanded by colonel Smith, was stationed at Allahabad, 200 miles beyond Patna, by the earnest desire of the king and Sujah Dowla, in order to secure them against the invasion of the Morattoes, until they should have sufficiently recruited their own army, which the length of the late war had almost entirely destroyed.

‘ The restoration of peace and public tranquillity, together with the establishment of a more perfect system of military discipline and subordination than could have been effected before the troops were formed into regiments, afforded a favourable opportunity for carrying into execution the company’s instructions relative to the reduction of the batta. Orders were accordingly issued by the select committee to the following effect, viz. That on the first of January, 1766, the double batta should cease, excepting with the second brigade, which, on account of the high price of provisions at Allahabad, and the expence of procuring the necessary European articles at so great a distance from the presidency, were to be allowed the double batta in the field, and the old original single batta in cantonments, or in garrison, until they should be recalled within the provinces. For the same reasons, half single batta was to be continued to the troops at Patna and Monghyr; but the rest of the army not engaged in actual service, we mean the detachments at the presidency, at subordinate factories, and other places, were to be put precisely on a footing with the company’s forces on the coast of Choromandel; that is to say, they were to have no batta at all.

‘ The officers had been too successful in their remonstrances against former orders of the like nature, to omit preferring them upon this occasion. The positive commands of the company were, ever, urged to them in reply; nor did lord Clive and the select committee flatter them with any hopes that the indulgence of double

ble batta would be prolonged beyond the time limited. The reduction accordingly took place on the first day of the new year; the gentlemen of the army, with whatever reluctance, thought proper for the present to acquiesce; and all complaint seemed to have entirely subsided. But this was only an appearance of submission; private meetings and consultations were held upon the subject in each brigade: secret committees were formed, under the denomination of free masons lodges, and means for obtaining redress devised, which seemed to have no other alternative than a mutiny of the whole army, consisting of above 20,000 men, and, in consequence, the extirpation of the English company in Bengal. They had no idea, perhaps, that things could come to such extremities; their measures were calculated merely for compelling the administration to a renewal of the batta, by a general resignation of their commissions, without regarding the probable consequences to themselves, or to the public; and unanimity, they doubted not, would ensure success.

This alarming combination was originally planned in December 1765, or January 1766, at Monghyr, and from thence proposed to the captains and subalterns of the 2d and 3d brigades. The first letter that appears to have been written, was to the officers in garrison at Allahabad, who immediately had a meeting to debate the matter; at this meeting a letter was also produced from the third brigade. But before they determined upon an answer to either, they wrote to a detachment of their own brigade, encamped at Corah; who, considering themselves upon actual service, replied, that they could not in honour immediately join in the defection; but that, after the expiration of their present service, they would not continue to hold their commissions to the prejudice of those gentlemen who should resign. The officers of the same corps at Allahabad, being on duty in a frontier garrison, concluded they were as much upon actual service as those employed in the field, and therefore concurred with the resolution of the Corah detachment. Such was the purport of the answer sent to the third brigade, with a request that it might be communicated by them to the first. This state of neutrality, however, was not long preserved: the sentiments of honour in the second brigade soon gave way to the general infatuation, as if the number of actors sufficiently justified the action; and these gentlemen, who in the beginning were restrained by some degree of principle, grew in the end as outrageous, and went even greater lengths than either of the other two brigades.

In each brigade a committee of correspondence was appointed, with full authority to answer all letters that might come from their associates, and to agree to, as well as to propose such measures as they should think proper. Near two hundred commissions of captains and subalterns were in a short time collected, and lodged in the hands of the adjutants and quarter-masters, in order to be delivered to the commanding officers of the respective brigades, on the 1st of June, which was the day fixed upon for the general resignation; though, to give a colour of moderation to their proceedings, they determined to make an offer of their services as volunteers till the 15th of the same month, by which time they imagined a final answer might be obtained from lord Clive, or the select committee, in their favour. All officers upon detached parties,

ties, of whom there were a considerable number in various and distant parts of the country, were written to by their particular friends, or in the name of the brigade to which they belonged, earnestly pressing them to enter into the combination, and not to divulge the affair. With regard to those who were present doing duty with their respective brigades, they bound themselves by a solemn oath to secrecy, and kept it so strictly, that even the field-officers upon the spot entertained not the least suspicion of what was going forward. They were likewise sworn to preserve, even at the hazard of their own lives, the life of any officer whom the rigour of a court-martial might condemn to death. But in order, as far as possible, to avoid incurring the penalties of mutiny and desertion, they determined to refuse their usual advance of pay for the month of June.

As an expedient to prevent any recantation in this conspiracy, each officer bound himself in a penalty bond of 500*l.* not to re-accept his commission, if offered, except upon condition of having the allowance of double batta restored: and, to obviate the misfortune of lord Clive's proving so resolute as to reject their demands, a subscription was raised amongst themselves, each subscribing in proportion to his rank: besides which, a considerable sum is said to have been contributed privately by gentlemen in the civil service, in aid of the military cause. These monies, together with such forfeitures of the 500*l.* penalty abovementioned as might be incurred and levied, were to establish a fund for the maintenance of those who stood in need of it, in case all the commissions should be accepted, or of those who might be pointed out as principals, and dismissed the service, even though the army in general should be requested to resume their commissions, and the double batta be re-established upon its former footing. By the same means the expences of their voyage to Europe were to be defrayed, and commissions of equal rank purchased in the king's regiments; to which they never supposed their mode of relinquishing the company's service would prove the least obstruction.

The plot was thus ripening, when a circumstance occurred, which could not but inspire them with additional hopes of success, since it seemed to prognosticate an occasion for the service of at least one entire brigade, about the very time fixed upon for the general resignation. This circumstance was the sudden approach of between fifty and sixty thousand Morattoes towards the frontiers of Corah, about one hundred and fifty miles from Allahabad; and whether their intentions were to invade the provinces, or to march to Delhi, was yet unknown; at all events, however, it was judged expedient, that colonel Smith, with the whole of the second brigade (except the European regiment, which it was not thought proper to risk in the field during the excessive heats of April and May, and which therefore was left to do garrison duty at Allahabad) should take post at Seragepore, where he was accordingly ordered to encamp, and observe the motions of the suspected army.

This well laid scheme being discovered while lord Clive was at Muxadavad, he determined, at all hazards, to maintain his own authority, to accept the commissions of the male contents, and apply to Madras for assistance. Every thing yielded before his determined spirit: accompanied only by two or three officers, he joined the first brigade seasonably to prevent

the most fatal disorder among the private soldiers, all of whom had caught the contagious spirit of mutiny from their superiors. The combination was dissolved, fear and contrition succeeded to faction and sedition; the officers to a man submitted, some more active and violent were tried by courts martial, others were sent to England, and those who were thought deserving objects of clemency were re-instated in the service.

As we cannot do justice to a Narrative so connected by circumstances as not to admit of satisfactory extracts, we recommend this little work to our readers, assuring them they will have no reason to consider as mispent the time employed in the perusal.

FOREIGN ARTICLE.

XII. *Oeuvres du Comte Algarotti. Traduit de l' Italien. 7 Vols. 8vo. Berlin.*

THE late count Francesco Algarotti had seen a great part of Europe: his various literary productions have met with general approbation, and several of them have been translated into the English language: we therefore hope, that a concise enumeration of the contents of the present collection, and a short account of a nobleman so deservedly esteemed as a profound philosopher, an excellent poet, a fine writer, a genuine connoisseur and zealous promoter of the polite arts, and an amiable character in life, will not prove unacceptable to our readers.

Count Francesco Algarotti, lord of the bedchamber to the king of Prussia, and knight of his order *pour le Mérite*, was born, December 11, 1712, at Venice, of noble and wealthy parents, who in his first stage of life, sent him to the college of Nazareth at Rome, and at the age of fourteen took him back to Venice under their own immediate care.

After his father's death the care of his education devolved on his elder brother, who sent him to the university of Bologna. Here he applied himself, under Manfredi, Francesco Zannotti, Dr. Beccari, and other learned men, with ardour and success to the study of the Latin, Greek, and Italian tongues, and their classic writers; of mathematics, experimental philosophy, physics, and the belles lettres. His early inclination for the polite arts induced him to add to these studies that of anatomy, as far as it is requisite for the attainment of correctness in the art of drawing.

During this early period of his life, and while he was studying Sir Isaac Newton's Principles of Optics, and constating them for the first time in Italy by experiments, count Giovanni Rizzetti having published a book *de Luminis Affectionibus*, against Newton. Young Algarotti upon this, repeated his optical experiments before the philosophers at Bologna and Venice, and answered Rizzetti's book by a Dissertation *de Colorum Immutabilitate*.

These were the first fruits of his difficult and meritorious design to familiarize the abstract truths of philosophy by perspicuity of method, to recommend them by delicacy of taste and warmth of eloquence,

quence, and to introduce the Italian literati, noblemen, and the fair sex in general, to an acquaintance with Newtonianism.

His well known Dialogues on Sir Isaac's Optics were first conceived at Bologna, then composed at Rome and at Paris, often since corrected and improved in nine successive editions of the Italian original, translated into the English, German, French, and even into the Portuguese and the Russian * languages, and generally applauded.

Previous to their publication he read them to Mess. de Maupertuis, Fontenelle, Voltaire, and other philosophers of his acquaintance. The marchioness du Chatelet was very desirous not only of having them dedicated to her, but also of appearing in them as one of the principal interlocutors †. But as the idea of the plan and method of the work had been suggested by Fontenelle's Dialogues on the Plurality of Worlds, and its execution been warmly approved of by that celebrated writer, the Newtonianism for the fair sex was, to the great regret of Voltaire ‡, at first published with a very elegant dedication to that old Cartesian, and in a latter edition of 1752, inscribed to the king of Prussia.

We have entered into some detail concerning his first publication, as it proved the extent of his genius at so early an age, and spread his literary reputation over the greatest part of Europe. Of his other works we shall speak hereafter.

To this stock of knowledge he joined the fruits of useful travels and an extensive correspondence: for he had not only examined and described whatever was in Italy worth a connoisseur's attention, but had also visited Paris twice, London three times, and travelled through Swisserland, Germany, and Russia, in quest of instruction: and it is with pleasure we add, that of all the countries he had seen, he seemed always to remember England with a kind of predilection.

A great variety of fortunate circumstances had, indeed, conspired to form and cultivate a character estimable for scholars, agreeable to the great and the fair, and alike dear to science, belles lettres, polite arts, and friendship.

* By prince Cantimir.

† 'J'aurai donc l'honneur, (says that celebrated lady, in a letter to signor Algarotti) d'être à la tête de cet ouvrage plein d'esprit, de graces, d'imagination et de science. J'espère qu'en mettant mon portrait à la tête, vous laisserez sous-entendre que je suis votre marquise. Vous savez que l'ambition est une passion insatiable: je devrois bien me contenter d'être dans l'estampe; je voudrois à présent être dans l'ouvrage et qu'il me fût adressé. Mais ne croyez pas que je prétende à cet honneur sans songer à le mériter. J'apprens l'Italien non seulement pour l'entendre, mais peut-être pour le traduire un jour.'

To Algarotti's answer that he had already given his word, she replied: 'Je vous demande mille pardons de mon indiscretion sur vos Dialogues. Mais comment voulez vous que je devinasse que Fontenelle seroit votre marquise? Vous ne les prenez pas jeunes.— Je vous demande la survivance en cas qu'il meure avant l'impression, ce qui pourroit fort bien arriver, et surtout de ne me point préférer de marquise.'

‡ 'Il-y-a deux choses au monde qui *toujours* soumettent les rebelles, la *vérité* et la *beauté*. C'est avec ces armes que vous avez vaincu, mais je me plaindrai toujours de ce que vous avez dédié le Newtonianisme à un vieux Cartésien.' Voltaire.

He was born in a country full of the beauties of nature and of arts, of a wealthy, noble, learned family, solicitous to improve his various talents; had been instructed by excellent masters; recommended to notice by his birth, his talents, his knowledge, his temper, his friends; was ambitious of fame, docile to criticism, severe to himself; by his liberal fortune exempted from the cares and drudgeries by which genius is so often, not indeed crushed, but fettered, disheartened, eclipsed: his way of thinking had preserved him from the pursuits of selfishness and sordid intrigues; his character appeared worthy of the favours of fortune: he stood the hardest tests of prosperity: a general applause, a court-life, and the favours of the great; proved a dutiful son, an affectionate brother, a sincere and occasionally an active friend, always an agreeable and instructive companion. From his first acquaintance with the prince, now king of Prussia, he preserved the familiar and intimate friendship of the whole house of Brandenburg, to the day of his death, uninterrupted and undiminished, and enjoyed one of the boldest wishes of Voltaire, since

‘ Pour lui le bon tonneau fût à jamais fans lie.’

Upon the accession of the present king of Prussia to the crown, signor Algarotti was called to Berlin, appointed one of the lords of the bedchamber, raised with his brother and their posterity to the rank of counts of the kingdom of Prussia, and got the new title of his family acknowledged by the senate of Venice. He was also decorated with a ribbon of the order *pour le Mérite*, and his majesty moreover sent him a patent of an honorary privy-counsellor of war, accompanied by a curious copy of verses*. It was, perhaps, this title that partly induced count Algarotti afterwards to write so many learned essays relative to the art of war, which he dedicated to prince Henry and marshal Keith; his royal highness, however, in a very polite and obliging answer, seemed rather desirous of seeing him transformed into an actual privy adviser of peace†.

• ‘ Vous que les Graces et les Ris
Formerent pour flatter et plaire,
Pour instruire dans vos écrits,
Et non pour conseiller la guerre;
Recevez ces titres nouveaux,
Cet emploi, ce caractère
Plus digne de l'auteur du congrès de Cythere.
Ces titres dans les cours excitent des rivaux,
Animent les ressorts des complots et des brigues,
Et deviennent par des intrigues
La decoration des fots.
Dans les lieux simples que j'habite
On les sçait refuser aux enfans des héros,
Ils ne s'accordent qu'au mérite.’

† Insensiblement je suis entraîné à parler sur la manière dont on s'égorge. Qu'il seroit heureux si on trouvoit l'art de porter les hommes à s'aimer en freres! Quelle sagesse ne faudroit il pas pour faire parler dans leur coeur l'importante leçon que fit Cinéas à Pyrrhus? C'est une entreprise digne de votre attention, laquelle tiendrait une place distinguée dans le reste de l'humanité. Je suis, avec toute la considération, votre très affectionné ami & serviteur,

HENRI.

His love of truth and frankness was not tainted by the air of courts, nor his modesty and moderation impaired by the favour of the great. When his Prussian majesty invited him to Berlin, he wrote to him that he would find there 'la liberté pour devise.' Rich by birth, and still more so by contentment, he asked nothing for himself, and exerted his credit only for others: and were it not that mankind are more sensible to the reflexion of having needed, than to the glory of having deserved benefits, persons might be named, to whom count Algarotti, when he could not otherwise assist them, assigned annuities for life on his own estate.

His physiognomy was noble and open, his manners polite and obliging, his reasonings precise, his diction perspicuous and eloquent; his conversation equally pleasing to philosophers, beaux esprits, virtuosi, to persons delighting in the description of foreign countries and manners, in literary or political anecdotes; and engaging for the fair sex.

Though born with a delicate constitution, he had in his youth enjoyed a firm uninterrupted state of health; which, however, was, from the fatigues of study, of voyages and travels, the diversities of climes and aliments, at length undermined and destroyed by hypochondriac and other disorders. This obliged him to return to Italy, where he lived for some time in his family at Venice; then settled at Bologna for the benefit of a purer air; and when he felt himself attacked by a phthisic, probably caught from Maurino an ingenious painter and architect whom he had long employed and provided for, he retired at last to Pisa.

Here he supported a lingering disease, and beheld the slow approaches of death with philosophical calmness and serenity; spending his forenoons in conversation with Maurino on painting and architecture; his afternoons in giving his works that were then reprinting at Leghorn, a last revival; and exhilarating his evenings by concerts of vocal and instrumental music in his apartment.

On being apprized of his state, Voltaire invited him to Ferney, under the care of Dr. Tronchin; and the king of Prussia wrote him a most affecting letter*: it arrived when he scarce could hear it read, and was answered by tears of gratitude.

* J'ai jugé de votre mal par la lettre que vous m'avez écrite. Cette main tremblante m'a surpris et m'a fait une peine infinie. Puissiez vous vous remettre bientôt! avec quel plaisir j'apprendrois cette bonne nouvelle! Quoique les médecins de ce pays n'en sachent pas plus long que les vôtres pour prolonger la vie des hommes, un de nos Esculapes vient cependant de guérir un étique attaqué des poudrons bien plus violemment que ne l'étoit Maupertuis quand vous l'avez vu ici. Vous me ferez plaisir de m'envoyer votre *statum morbi* pour voir si la consultation de ce médecin ne pourroit pas vous être de quelque secours. Je compterois pour un de ces moments les plus agréables de ma vie celui où je pourrais vous procurer le rétablissement de votre santé; je désire de tout mon cœur qu'elle soit bien tôt assez forte pour que vous puissiez revenir dans ce pays-ci. Je vous montrerai alors une collection que j'ai faite de tableaux de vos compatriotes. Je dis à leur égard et à celui des peintres François, ce que Boileau disoit des poètes, 'Jeune j'aimois Ovide, vieux j'estime Virgile.' Je vous suis bien obligé de la part que vous prenez à ce qui me regarde. Au reste soyez persuadé que la nouvelle la plus agréable pour moi sera d'apprendre par vous même que vous êtes tout à fait rétabli.

Thus count Algarotti died as he had lived, in the arms of learning, polite arts, and friendship, May 3, 1764, at the age of 52 years, at Pisa.

He left the bulk of his estate to his brother; and several legacies, to the king of Prussia, to lord Chatham, cardinal Malvezzi, general Monti, and others; especially to his friends at Pisa, and his domestic servants; 3000 sequins to Maurino and his family, and 1000 sequins for a monument of his own invention, to be executed by Maurino, who was prevented by death. His Prussian majesty, however, ordered it to be erected at his expence, of the finest marble, by Carlo Bianconi, another celebrated painter and architect, with this inscription:

Algarotto Ovidii Æmulo Newtoni Discipulo
Fridericus Magnus.

And under the count's busto:

Algarottus Non Omnis.

To such a character it is needless to add, that his death was universally regretted. But a short copy of elegant verses to his memory we will here subjoin from signor Micheleffi's Memoirs concerning the Life and Writings of Count Francesco Algarotti, from whence this short account has been abstracted.

Hæc Algarotti effigies, quo cive superbit

Regina Adriacis quæ dominatur aquis.

Illius ore loqui dulces ante omnia Musas

Credidimus, Charites illius ore loqui.

Illius ingenio nec te latuere, Lycori,

Ardua Newtoni dogmata, prisma, color.

Plauserunt tanto contenti iudice vates;

Æmula naturæ plausit amica manus.

Enituere illo, choreæ scenæque, magistro;

Enituit Russi purior orbis honor.

Olli Ynclyas, Romæque canunt præconia reges;

Aptius ex illo Mars sibi legit opus.

Sed quid ego hæc retuli? Magno placuit Friderico.

Hoc unum longi carminis instar erat.

[To be continued.]

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

13. *Chefs d'Oeuvres Dramatique, ou Recueil des meilleures Pièces du Théâtre François, Tragique, Comique, et Lyrique, avec des Discours préliminaires sur les trois Genres, et des Remarques sur la Langue et le Goût. Par M. Marmontel, Historiographe de France, &c. 4to. Paris. (with Plates and Decorations.)*

THIS first volume of a very valuable and elegant, but expensive work, contains its prospectus, and may serve for a specimen of its execution. It is chiefly for those, who, on account of their age, their profession, their character, or their way of thinking, do not chuse to frequent playhouses, that Mr. Marmontel proposes to collect the best French dramatic pieces, to illustrate them with critical discourses and remarks, and to enliven them by plates and decorations, displaying the most picturesque and interesting situations in each drama. Every volume of this collection will contain four dramatic pieces of five acts each, or an equivalent number of acts.

acts, made up by smaller pieces. Two volumes are to be published every year at the price of twenty four French livres each. This first consists of 191 pages, and costs twenty one livres.

14. *Placide à Maclovie, sur les Scrupules.* 12mo. Paris.
The causes and remedies of scruples of conscience are here explained with perspicuity and method, in an abridgement of the maxims of respectable casuists.

15. *Instruction Militaire, ou Explication par Demandes et Responses d'un grand nombre de difficultés, relatives à la Conscience qui se rencontrent dans le métier de la Guerre, tant de Terre que de Mer; et leur Résolution conformément aux Regles du Droit canonique et civil, aux Principes de la Morale, et à l'Autorité de l'Histoire.* Par le R. P. Joseph d'Audierne, Ancien Provincial des Capuchins de la Bretagne. 2 Vols. 12mo. Rennes.

This curious catechism, designed for the tender consciences of soldiers and mariners, has been abstracted from a work in three folio volumes, published by Father Anton. Thomas Schiara, a learned Italian canonist, under the title *Theologia Bellica*.

16. *Catéchisme d'Agriculture, ou Bibliothèque des Gens de la Campagne, dans laquelle on enseigne par des procédés très simples l'Art de cultiver la Terre, de la faire fructifier, et de rendre les Hommes qui la cultivent meilleurs et plus heureux. On y a joint l'Art de cultiver les Fleurs et les Jardins Potagers.* 12mo. Paris.

Another catechism, that bids fair to be of considerable service to husbandmen, their landlords, and the public. The author introduces a father instructing his son in the several branches of husbandry: and afterwards pathetically laments the abuse and cruelty of engrossing farms, and describes its effects in successively degrading the poorer class of farmers to labourers, idlers, vagrants, beggars, and robbers.

17. *Lettres d'une Chanoinesse de Lisbonne à Meilcour, Officier François, précédées de quelques Reflexions.* Paris.

The well-known Portuguese Letters, versified by Mr. Dorat, in a very affecting and masterly manner.

18. *Recueil d'Antiquités dans les Gaules enrichi de diverses Planches et Figures, Plans, Cartes topographiques et autres Dessins, pour servir à l'Intelligence des Inscriptions des Antiquités de feu M. le Comte de Caylus.* Par M. de la Sauvagère, &c. 4to. (with 29 Plates.) Paris.

Containing designs of many decaying monuments of antiquity in France, accurately drawn and judiciously explained.

19. *Descrizione pratica e teorica d'un Modello di Macchina detto il Compasso per iscavare fango e arena dai porti, disegnato e fatto eseguire in Savona, dal Padre Giov. Domenico Gerra della Compagnia di Gesù, dedicata al nobilissimo signore Giambattista Grimaldi; del serenissimo Pier Francesco.* In Genova.

The contriver of this machine had been furiously calumniated and opposed before he was allowed to benefit his country. But as M. Grimaldi, governor of Savona, and son to the doge of Genoa, engaged, in case of a miscarriage, to pay for the model; it was purchased by the town of Savona, which now enjoys the prospect of seeing its harbour soon cleared and restored by its prodigious effects.

20. *Traduction en Prose de Catulle, Tibulle, et Gallus; par l'Auteur des Soirées Helvétiques et des Tableaux.* Paris.

Rather elegant than faithful.

21. *Histoire des Diables modernes par l' feu M. Adolphus, Juif Anglois Docteur en Médecine. Troisième Edit. 8vo. Cleves.*

This historiographer of modern devils seems to have been a native of Cleve. In his opinion the morals of his fellow-citizens, and especially these of the fair-sex, had been exceedingly corrupted by the officers of the French garrison during the late war. He, therefore, considers them as so many emissaries of Satan, part of whose history he draws up from his archives in the college of the Jesuits at Paris, and respectfully inscribes it to the king of Prussia.

The reformation of the morals of his native town, however, appears not to have been his sole purpose in writing this volume. It was also intended to serve its author for an opiate during the anguish of the gout. Duplex ergo, nay, triplex libelli dos est: at least, we may hope it has exhilarated some gloomy splenetic moments of its writer.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O E T R Y.

22. *Poems on various Subjects, Religious and Moral. By Phillis Wheatley, Negro Servant to Mr. John Wheatley of Boston, in New-England. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. A. Bell.*

THE Negroes of Africa are generally treated as a dull, ignorant, and ignoble race of men, fit only to be slaves, and incapable of any considerable attainments in the liberal arts and sciences. A poet or a poetess amongst them, of any tolerable genius, would be a prodigy in literature.—Phillis Wheatley, the author of these poems, is this literary phænomenon. She was carried from Africa to America in the year 1761, when she was between seven and eight years of age. In about sixteen months time, without any instruction, besides what she received in her master's family, she was able to speak the English language, and read the Bible with surprising facility. In 1765 she wrote a letter to the rev. Mr. Occom, the Indian minister, then in England; and soon afterwards began to make some attempts in poetry.

The pieces, of which this little volume consists, are the productions of her leisure moments. And though they are not remarkably beautiful, they have too much merit to be thrown aside, as trifling and worthless effusions.

The following piece may serve as a specimen: it is the first, but not superior to some others, in this collection.

‘ Mæcenæ, you, beneath the myrtle shade,
Read o’er what poets sung, and shepherds play’d,
What felt those poets but you feel the same?
Does not your soul possess the sacred flame?
Their noble strains your equal genius shares
In softer language, and diviner airs.

‘ While Homer paints, lo! circumfus’d in air,
Celestial gods in mortal forms appear;
Swift as they move hear each recess rebound,
Heav’n quakes, earth trembles, and the shores resound.

Great

Great fire of verse, before my mortal eyes,
 The lightnings blaze across the vaulted skies,
 And, as the thunder shakes the heav'nly plains,
 A deep-felt horror thrills through all my veins.
 When gentler strains demand thy graceful song,
 The length'ning line moves languishing along.
 When great Patroclus courts Achilles' aid,
 The grateful tribute of my tears is paid;
 Prone on the shore he feels the pangs of love,
 And stern Pelides' tend'rest passions move.
 ' Great Maro's strain in heav'nly numbers flows,
 The Nine inspire, and all the bosom glows.
 O could I rival thine and Virgil's page,
 Or claim the Muses with the Mantuan sage;
 Soon the same beauties should my mind adorn,
 And the same ardors in my soul should burn:
 Then should my song in bolder notes arise,
 And all my numbers pleasingly surprize;
 But here I sit, and mourn a grov'ling mind,
 That fain would mount, and ride upon the wind.
 ' Not you, my friend, these plaintive strains become,
 Not you, whose bosom is the Muses home;
 When they from tow'ring Helicon retire,
 They fan in you the bright immortal fire;
 But I, less happy, cannot raise the song,
 The fault'ring music dies upon my tongue.
 ' The happier Terence all the choir inspir'd,
 His soul replenish'd, and his bosom fir'd;
 But say, ye Muses, why this partial grace,
 To one alone of Afric's sable race;
 From age to age transmitting thus his name
 With the first glory in the rolls of fame?
 ' Thy virtues, great Mæcenæ! shall be sung
 In praise of him, from whom those virtues sprung:
 While blooming wreaths around thy temples spread,
 I'll snatch a laurel from thine honour'd head,
 While you indulgent smile upon the deed.
 ' As long as Thames in streams majestic flows,
 Or Naiads in their oozy beds repose,
 While Phœbus reigns above the starry train,
 While bright Aurora purples o'er the main,
 So long, great sir, the Muse thy praise shall sing,
 So long thy praise shall make Parnassus ring:
 Then grant, Mæcenæ, thy paternal rays,
 Hear me propitious, and defend my lays.

There are several lines in this piece, which would be no discredit to an English poet. The whole is indeed extraordinary, considered as the production of a young Negro, who was, but a few years since, an illiterate barbarian. The author appears to be of a serious, and religious turn of mind. Her poems are for the most part of that cast.—Their authenticity is attested by several gentlemen of the most respectable character in Boston.

23. *Evelina: a Poem.* By John Huddleston Wynne, *Gent.*
4to. 2s. 6d. Riley.

The heroine of this poem is the daughter of Caradoc, or Caractacus, a British prince, who, when her father was betrayed into the hands of the Romans, expired upon the spot, from the horror with which she was affected at the catastrophe of her family and country. The Druids are here represented as depositing the remains of the unfortunate princess in a deep valley near the foot of Snowdon, where the author informs us that a sarcophagus has been discovered, on which were inscribed in rude characters the name of Evelina; an incident which gave occasion to the poem. The funeral procession and lamentation of the Druids are described in a strain of elegy which inspires a reverential awe, and is agreeably soothing to the imagination. This subject, however, constitutes the smallest part of the poem; for the author afterwards introduces a description of the most remarkable parts of Cambria, or Wales, with a short prophetic view of some of the transactions in Britain subsequent to the time of Evelina.

24. *The Pantheon, a Poem.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Williams.

The scene of public entertainment which is the subject of this poem, affords a large field for the exercise of poetical licence; and in so motley a company as that at the Pantheon, many must be the objects both of panegyric and satire. To describe faithfully the several characters, however, requires such a rigid regard to justice as we scarcely can expect to find in those kinds of description where truth is so often sacrificed to picturesque representation, and beauties and blemishes are magnified, according to the prejudice or caprice of the authors. We cannot, therefore, admit that this bard characterises with impartiality; but considering him even as void of prepossession, his pretension to poetical merit is very inconsiderable.

25. *An Ode, sacred to the Memory of the late right hon. George Lord Lyttelton.* 4to. 1s. Doddsley.

We sincerely regret the event which has given occasion to this Ode, and wish to see it lamented in strains worthy of the amiable virtues and distinguished abilities of the lately deceased lord Lyttelton; but this production, though well intended, is not a sufficient tribute to the memory of so great a man.

26. *The City-Patricians. A Poem.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Allen.

The author of this rhapsody appears to be the same notable genius who some time since dealt his effusions among the members of two great assemblies. The theme with which he now amuses himself is the court of aldermen, among whom he likewise distributes his praise and censure with a lavish and undiscerning hand. Should he turn his attention to the
body

body of liverymen, what a glorious, but suitable subject will they afford to such poetical abilities!

27. *Surry Triumphant: or the Kentish-Mens Defeat. A new Ballad; being a Parody on Chevy-Chace.* 4to. 1s. Johnson.

This ballad is founded on a late cricket match between the men of Surry and Kent, in which the former, it appears, were victorious. The author has not unhappily parodied the celebrated model, Chevy Chace, by which he has constructed his poem; though the preservation of similarity was rendered more difficult by a strict adherence to truth, whereby he professes to have been guided.

In conformity to the rule, that an heroic poem should be founded upon some important precept of morality, adapted to the constitution of the country in which the poet writes, our author endeavours to inculcate, that idle games should not be practised in the time of harvest; a precept which certainly merits the attention of those who may hereafter engage in such sports.

✓ D R A M A T I C A L.

28. *The Macaroni: a Comedy. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal in York.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Nicoll.

After being exposed to public ridicule in a variety of lights, a person under the title of a Macaroni is here produced upon the stage. Extreme self-love, pusillanimity, and effeminacy, are the qualities which distinguish his character; these, we must acknowledge, are not unhappily described. With respect to the scenes where the Macaroni is not introduced, the comedy is rather of the serious than humorous kind.

29. *The Pantheonites. A Dramatic Entertainment. As performed at the Theatre-Royal in the Hay-Market.* 8vo. 1s. Bell.

The principal characters in this piece are Druggier, a tobaccoist, and his wife; who, upon receiving information that a ticket which they had in the lottery was drawn a 20,000l. prize, immediately began to affect the manners of people of rank, and to launch into every fashionable extravagance. The representation of their ridiculous behaviour is continued through two acts, with a great degree of merit. It is at length discovered that a mistake had been committed by the lottery-office keeper, in announcing the prize to Druggier's ticket, when it belonged to one which was the property of Mrs. Druggier's sister.

✓ N O V E L S.

30. *The Fashionable Friend, a Novel.* 2 vols. 12mo. 6s. Becket.

When the ancient romances were exploded, and pictures of real life were substituted in their stead, such a variety of characters and incidents presented themselves, that novel-writers easily met with materials; a wide field was opened for them to range in, and they might avoid treading in each others steps.

But

But since almost every track is become beaten, authors are obliged to make the most of what is left them; for this reason most of our later novels are very barren of incidents, and the writers seem to aim less at diversifying their tales, than at working up a single circumstance in the most striking manner. In that before us we have little variety; but the author of it endeavours to interest us in behalf of injured innocence, by painting the misfortunes of his heroine in the strongest colours. In this he certainly succeeds, as the reader who is susceptible of pity will scarcely peruse this little tale without emotions of sympathy. A critical reader will, it is true, be offended with some inconsistencies and improbabilities, which the writer, had he been careful in forming the plan of his work, might easily have avoided. To name only one—the secret of Henrietta's marriage she could not think of revealing, even to save her reputation, at a time when the loss of it was peculiarly unfortunate, her husband having (as she writes to her most intimate friend) laid his commands upon her never to have any other entrusted with the secret; yet when that husband entrusts the secret to a friend, whom he requests to take care of his wife in his absence, and mentions that if the secret were known to his father, his inevitable ruin would be the consequence, that friend writes the whole story to another friend, and continues to correspond with him on the subject. Henrietta's servants are also entrusted with this secret, and yet it is of such consequence, that when the husband was long absent, when he received no answers to the letters he wrote both to his wife and his friend, save one in which that friend gave him some distressing hints, he could procure no information concerning his wife, because he would not entrust any friend with the secret of his marriage.

If a reader will excuse these and a few other inconsistencies, some of which materially affect the story, he will not think an hour or two ill employed in the perusal of these volumes.

31. *The Hermitage: a British Story.* 2 vols. 12mo. 6s. Bell.

There is something interesting in this British Story, and it would be in many places affecting, did not the *batbos* of the language, destroy the *pathos* of the sentiment. Had the story been related with more simplicity it would have appeared to much greater advantage: but it is, with all its inflations of style, a composition which does no discredit to the understanding or feelings of the author.

32. *The Friends.* 2 vols. 12mo. 6s. Bell.

The letters in these volumes have, in general, no small degree of merit. They abound with judicious observations, strongly, and often happily, expressed. If all the epistolary productions of this scribbling age were as unexceptionable, the reviewing of them would be rather a pleasant than a painful employment.

MISCELLANEOUS.

33. *Socinianism brought to the Test: or Jesus Christ proved to be either the Adorable God, or a Notorious Impostor.* By John Macgowan. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Keith.

The design of these letters is to shew, first, that the doctrine of Mohammed, and that of Dr. Priestley are precisely the same, with respect to the Trinity, and the person of Jesus Christ, both representing Christ as a mere man like themselves; that, secondly, if the doctor's hypothesis be true, Mohammed was a more consistent prophet than David, Isaiah, and all the rest of the Jewish prophets; that he was even a better preacher than Christ and all his apostles; that he was more tender of the divine character, and more zealous for the glory of God, than all the prophets, or than Christ and his apostles, and, consequently, that he gave better proof of the divinity of his mission, than Christ gave of his; that, upon the same principle, the world has received more extensive and lasting advantages from Mohammed than from Jesus Christ; and that, in short, if Christ was but a mere man, he was an arrant impostor, a notorious blasphemer, and as such, most justly condemned by the Jewish Sanhedrim, and still rejected by their offspring.

There is novelty, and a poignancy in this writer's train of reasoning.

34. *A General History of Ireland. From the earliest Accounts to the present Time,* by John Huddleston Wynne, Gent. 2 vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. boards. Riley.

A General History of Ireland, from the earliest period to the reign of George III. comprised in the compass of two volumes octavo, is such a work as must afford a very imperfect account of the transactions of that country, even allowing the compiler to have made the most economical use of the limits prescribed to his undertaking. Mr. Wynne, however, seems to have paid so little attention to this circumstance, that, extravagantly narrow as the bounds of his abridgement are, he has increased its deficiency by indulging himself in declamatory digressions entirely foreign to his subject. We wish we could not add, that the work also discovers unjustifiable omissions, and such inaccuracies as render the narrative worse than imperfect.

35. *An Introduction to the Knowledge and Use of Maps; rendered easy and familiar to any Capacity.* 12mo. 3s. Crowder.

This small but elegant Introduction to the Knowledge and Use of Maps, dedicated to his royal highness the bishop of Osnaburgh, the author, or rather authoress, for we have some reason to believe it is the work of a female pen, informs the reader, was compiled chiefly with regard to those young gentlemen and ladies who have a taste for geography, and are will-

willing to attain the first principles thereof in the most natural and easy manner. 'It is a study held in the highest regard, and looked upon as the most essential and polite part of education, entertaining and useful to young ladies, as well as to gentlemen, and to all those who are bred up to the learned professions. The fair sex may intermingle these amusements with the operations of the needle, and the knowledge of a domestic life. In a word, this useful science has ever been held in the highest estimation in the most refined courts, and politest nations in the world, and is honoured at this time with peculiar attention by several of the younger part of our present illustrious royal family.'

In the course of this performance the reader will, we apprehend, be agreeably entertained with a general and accurate description of the hemispheres of the earth, the use of those maps which represent the subdivided world into its four quarters, Europe, Asia, Africa, and America; the properties of the several inhabitants of the earth, with many other curious and interesting geographical articles, to which we may also add the ingenious writer's explication of the nature of longitude, which is thus: 'Suppose we sail from London exactly at 12 o'clock at noon (at which time the sun is on our meridian) and proceed by the compass till after some days; we wish to know our longitude, we therefore look at our time-piece, and find that it is exactly 10 o'clock in the morning; but by observing the sun we discover it is noon, or precisely 12 o'clock; that luminary then being due south, or at its meridian height, and consequently at that place makes it mid-day, or 12 o'clock. The time-piece at this instant making it only 10 o'clock in the morning; and the sun proving it to be 12 o'clock, makes 2 hours difference between the sun and time-keeper, and shows that we are 2 hours eastward * of London, or 30 degrees east longitude, which is equal to 1800 miles (reckoning 60 miles to a degree). The difficulty which formerly arose in truly ascertaining the longitude, was occasioned by the irregularity of our watches and time-keepers, which is now much remedied by that excellent time-piece contrived by Mr. Harrison, for which his labours were liberally rewarded by the government."

We recommend this Introduction to the Knowledge and Use of Maps, as extremely necessary for those who, unacquainted with the principles of geography, are desirous of obtaining an ample knowledge of that science, without the assistance of a master.

36. *Considerations on the Use and Abuse of Antimonial Medicines in Fevers, and other Disorders.* 8vo. 1s. Murray.

The attempt of some empiric to impose on the public credulity.

* Had the time-keeper pointed to two in the afternoon, it would prove we had been two hours, or 30 deg. west of London, or west longitude.

37. *The*

37. *The Universal Botanist and Nurseryman.* By Richard Weston, Esq. Vol. III. 8vo. 6s. Bell.

In this volume Mr. Weston continues to execute his useful undertaking according to the concise plan on which he set forth. He still restricts himself to the most characteristic descriptions of each vegetable, and avoids a multiplicity of synonymous names. The great labour and attention required in a work of this nature, can be conceived only by those who are acquainted with the subject; and all such will be ready to acknowledge the merit and utility of this botanical production.

38. *A Faithful Narrative of the Conversion and Death of Count Struenfee, late Prime Minister of Denmark; together with Letters of his Parents to Him, and also a Letter of his own; wherein he relates how he came to alter his Sentiments of Religion.* Published by D. Munter. To which is added, the History of Count Enevold Brandt, from the time of his Imprisonment to his Death. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Linde.

The title of this work will scarcely bias the reader in its favour. Most of those accounts, which are given of the conversion of hardened sinners, are the productions of weak, enthusiastic writers, and are filled with trifling details, dreams, visions, and pious reveries.

These narratives are not of that despicable character. They are sober and sensible performances; but, at the same time, a little insipid and prolix. The former consists of thirty-eight conferences, on almost all the practical and speculative doctrines of Christianity, by which Struenfee was entirely reclaimed from his irreligious principles. The latter is not so extensive and circumstantial.

We have no reason to question their authenticity. Dr. Munter and Dr. Hee, to whom they are ascribed, are said to be two eminent divines at Copenhagen, who were appointed by the king of Denmark to attend the two state prisoners, Struenfee and Brandt.

39. *The Mariner's Instructor: being an easy and expeditious Method, whereby a Master may teach the Art of Navigation in a short Time: designed chiefly for those Persons who cannot spare more Time in learning it than is absolutely necessary.* By William Puddicombe. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Law.

It does not appear from the work before us that either the ambition of becoming an author, or the hopes of adding any thing very new to the subject, induced Mr. Puddicombe to present this small treatise to the public, his chief design being rather to assist those who cannot spare more time in learning the essential branches of the nautical science than is absolutely necessary for that purpose. We may indeed reasonably suppose that an art so very interesting to mankind as navigation certainly

tainly is, must long before this time have received every improvement which human sagacity could possibly suggest; yet, on the other hand, even compilations from other authors, when properly executed by persons well experienced in the practice, and sufficiently skilled in the theory of this art, cannot fail of proving extremely useful to the young industrious seaman. With this view our author has presumed to add another book to the amazing number already extant upon the subject of navigation. 'Having, he says, when a sea-faring man, frequently observed that many had been deterred from acquiring a sufficient knowledge in this art, by the time and trouble, as well as expence, usually required in learning it, the common methods of teaching it in our schools requiring longer study and application than would have been consistent with their convenience and circumstances; this induced me to attempt a shorter method of conveying the necessary instructions for this purpose, by omitting such particulars in others books on this subject as I deemed superfluous and unnecessary for such persons as above described, and for whom this treatise is chiefly designed; or by altering the order in which some others are commonly taught, where I thought it might be thereby rendered more easy and intelligible to the learner, and consequently enable him to make a more expeditious progress in the acquisition of all that might be absolutely for his purpose.' How far the author has succeeded in this attempt, the work itself must evince; we are however of opinion that the common problems relating to plane, traverse, and Mercator's sailing, together with the rules for working an observation, and finding the variation of the compass by the sun's azimuth or amplitude, are here exemplified in a very judicious and comprehensive method; to which we may add, that the form of keeping a journal at sea, correcting the dead-reckoning by an observation, with many other requisites necessary to be known, in order to keep an exact account of a ship's way, Mr. Puddicombe has treated of in a satisfactory manner.

40. *The Art of Playing at Skittles: or, the Laws of Nine-Pins displayed.* By A. Jones, Esq. 12mo. 1s. Wilkie.

We are so very little acquainted with the game which is the subject of this treatise, that we cannot take upon us to deliver any opinion concerning the rules prescribed by Mr. Jones, though we entertain no doubt but they may prove useful to those who are desirous of acquiring a proficiency at Nine Pins. We must therefore leave others to judge of *goes* and *tips*, while we quit the skittle-ground as fast as we can.

